

Wm. Saml^g Smith,

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AMERICAN REVIEW,

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LITERARY JOURNAL.

VOL. I.]

FOR APRIL, MAY AND JUNE, 1801.

[NO. 2.]

ARTICLE I.

✓ *The Medical Repository. Conducted by Samuel L. Mitchill, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in Columbia College, &c. Edward Miller, M. D. and Elihu H. Smith, one of the Physicians to the New-York Hospital. Vol. i. pp. 575. 2d Edition. New-York. T. & J. Swords. 1800.*

THE rapid progress made by medical science, in the United States, for a few years past, must afford great pleasure to every friend of humanity and of learning. For this progress we are indebted to the example and the writings of a number of respectable American physicians; to the establishment of numerous medical associations; and to our growing intercourse and acquaintance with the European world, and its splendid scientific institutions and improvements. Several circumstances, at the same time, conspired to render our progress slower, and less obvious than it might otherwise have been. The physicians of a country so extended; with a population so scattered; and with so little opportunity of profiting by the lights and the experience of each other, could not, without much difficulty, either improve themselves, or serve the interests of humanity, so effectually as their individual characters gave reason to expect. For it may with truth be asserted, that there is no one of the various professions denominated *learned*, the honour and success of which depend so much on union of exertions, and the free communication of the experiments, views, and discoveries of each, to a common mass.

A persuasion of this truth, and also that our country had made sufficient progress in literature and wealth to render such

a plan generally desired and easily supported, prompted the Editors to undertake and prosecute the work before us. This is the first periodical work devoted to science ever instituted in the United States; and it must afford very high gratification to the Editors to find that their confidence in the support of their fellow citizens was not ill founded. We are not only persuaded that the public much approve, and are disposed to encourage their labours, but that they may already take to themselves the additional pleasure which ought to be derived from the assurance that they have contributed to raise the medical character of their country, and substantially to promote the interests of general knowledge.

Our readers will forgive us if we pause a moment, before entering on the examination of the present work, to express our grief for the premature death of one of its founders, and to pay a tribute of respect to his memory. Few persons, we believe, have been more ready than the surviving colleagues of the late Dr. ELIHU H. SMITH, to express, with affectionate ardour, their high opinion of his enlightened zeal, in devising the plan of the present publication, and putting it into operation; the diligence of his exertions to support its character; and the great value of his labours as an Editor. Their candour has led them to acknowledge that to his confidence and activity the work is indebted for its existence. Indeed, we know of no man so well qualified for the conducting a work of literature and science in a country where so many obstacles are to be encountered. His habits of order and regularity in the distribution of his occupations, and the employment of his time, and, above all, that spirit of perseverance, without which no great purpose can be accomplished, singularly fitted him for such an undertaking.

Few have acquired, so early in life, the high reputation he enjoyed, and very few, at any age, have been more generally regretted at their death. The native energy and activity of his mind, the extent of his learning, the warmth of his philanthropy, his indefatigable industry in the acquisition and diffusion of knowledge, and for the advancement of the interests of science, all conspired to render him useful in his profession, and in all the relations of social life; to excite high expectations of his future eminence and services; and to produce the liveliest sorrow for his premature removal.

Happily, however, for the interests of medical science, the death of this excellent and accomplished young man did not discourage his surviving colleagues, nor cause a discontinu-

ance or suspension of their labours.—They had entered on the *second* volume, when they were called to deplore the loss of their companion; and they have now laid the *fourth* before the public.—We perceive, however, no diminution in their laudable activity, nor in the richness or value of their materials. The work appears to progress with unabated claims to the approbation of the public.

That we may avoid running too much into details, in our examination of the work before us, we shall take a cursory glance at each of the subdivisions, or departments into which its contents are distributed, and content ourselves with giving the reader a general view of each.

The first department of this work consists of original essays, on medicine, surgery, and the auxiliary branches of philosophy. Among these, in the present volume, we find several valuable papers on pestilential diseases, especially on the *yellow fever*, which has proved so destructive a visitant to many parts of the United States for several years past. These papers are by the late Dr. *Elihu H. Smith*; by Dr. *Davidson*, of Martinique; by Dr. *Osborn*, of Connecticut; by Dr. *Seaman*, of New-York; by Dr. *Buel*, of Sheffield, in Massachusetts; by Dr. *Walker*, of Jamaica; by Dr. *Coffin*, of Newburyport, Massachusetts; and by the Rev. Mr. *Backus*, of Bethlem, Connecticut. Those by Dr. *Smith* are two; on the *plague of Athens*, and on the *yellow fever of Grenada* in 1793. We are pleased with the learning, ingenuity, and zeal, in the cause of science and humanity, which they evince. And although we shall not undertake to decide on the rectitude of the medical opinions which they are evidently designed to support, yet the talents, information, and benevolence of the much lamented writer, are strikingly displayed in his mode of treating the important questions which came before him.—The other papers, included in the same class, though of different degrees of merit, in a literary and scientific view, are all of them valuable, as they present the facts observed by a number of physicians, in as many different situations, and their reasonings upon them; which must always be considered of great importance in making up an enlightened judgment on questions so complex as those which relate to the origin, nature, and cure of diseases variable in their phenomena, and irresistible in their ravages.

Another class of the original essays in this volume are those which, though strictly medical, are not confined to the subject of pestilential diseases; a subject, which the Editors appear to have considered of primary moment, in the institution and progress

of their work. These latter papers are on the following subjects: *Remarks on the cholera of infants*, by Dr. Miller, of New-York; *Account of a scrophulous disease in a child*, by Dr. Phineas Hedges, of Newburgh, in the State of New-York; *Remarks on the use of caustic in urethral obstructions*, by Dr. Seaman, of New-York; *Account of a case of mania*, by Dr. E. H. Smith; *Remarks on the effects of abstinence in the prevention of diseases*, by Dr. Miller, of New-York; *A case of difficult parturition*, by Dr. Archer, of Maryland; *An account of a disease among cattle*, by the Rev. Mr. Parsons, of East-Haddam, Connecticut; *A case of canine madness*, by Dr. King, of Suffield, in Connecticut; *An account of the mercurial practice in New-England*, by Dr. Holyoke, of Salem, Massachusetts; *A singular case of disease in infancy*, by Dr. Hosack, of New-York; *Another case of the same disease*, by Dr. E. H. Smith. Our readers will not expect us to go into a particular examination of each of these papers. In general, we read them with pleasure, as indicating diligence of observation, a laudable professional zeal, and, in some instances, a degree of ingenuity and learning, very honourable to the writers.

The next portion of the volume before us is that which embraces three papers, communicated by Professor Mitchill, on the following subjects:—

1. *Remarks on manures; wherein, by an inquiry into the nature of septon (azote), and its relations to other bodies, it will be seen how nearly physic and farming are allied to each other. Intended as a sequel to Judge Peters's agricultural inquiries on plaster of Paris.*
2. *Further facts tending towards an explanation of the true operation of alkalies and lime upon other substances: in a letter to Thomas Beddoes, M. D. of Great-Britain.*
3. *An attempt to accommodate the disputes among the chemists, concerning phlogiston: in a letter to Dr. Priestley, dated November 14, 1797.*

We presume no literary character in the United States is ignorant of the new chemical doctrines, and of the various proposals for reforming the nomenclature of the French Academicians, with regard to certain substances, which have been published, for several years past, by the learned Professor of chemistry in Columbia college. These doctrines have excited so much of the public attention, not only in the native country of their author, but also, in many parts of Europe, particularly in Great-Britain, France, and Germany, that no minute explanations of them in this place can be necessary. The

first two of the above papers are designed to elucidate the nature and properties of *septic acid*; to ascertain and account for its fertilizing tendency; to point out the mischiefs which are to be feared from the operation of this poisonous gas; and to develop the means of correction by the use of alkalies and lime.—The last paper is intended to show, that each of the great chemical parties of the present day, the phlogistians and the antiphlogistians, have a portion of truth in their doctrines; and that, by a small reform in the nomenclature, their disputes may be reconciled.—Were we qualified to pronounce a judgment on the opinions of this gentleman, our limits would forbid us to enter on the discussion. It is sufficient to say, that they are highly plausible and interesting; that the reasonings adduced by him for their support are ingenious, forcible, and learned; and that even if, in the present revolutionary state of chemical doctrines, they should, in the end, be partially or wholly superseded, they must ever be considered as forming a very honourable monument of his talents and erudition.—With respect, indeed, to all the chemical philosophers of the present day, we are safe in doing homage to their abilities, and their zeal for the promotion of science; but future experience only can show, whether the fair proportions, and the captivating simplicity of their structures, be founded in truth and nature, or will melt away under the beams of more perfect light.

The remaining papers among the original essays are four, which relate to several subjects of natural history. These are, 1. *A sketch of the mineralogical history of the State of New-York*, by Professor Mitchill. 2. *Remarks on the digitalis purpurea*, by Dr. James Mease, of Philadelphia. 3. *Observations on the bad effects sometimes produced by eating pheasants*, by the same. 4. *Remarks on the climate of the North-Western Lakes*, by Major L. Swan. These papers are all valuable, and abundantly worthy of a place in this miscellany. But we have no hesitation in assigning by far the most importance to the first of them, by Professor Mitchill. That our country abounds in mineral riches, we have unequivocal and growing proof. It is to be lamented, that more has not been done to explore and render them productive. We have great pleasure in finding that the society in New-York, instituted for promoting agriculture, arts, and manufactures, thought the mineralogical history of the State worthy of investigation, and appointed so able a Commissioner for the purpose as the author of the *sketch* before us. The learned Professor does

not offer it as a complete display of the subject, but as a general outline, derived from the observations made during a hasty journey of six weeks, and intended to be filled up by subsequent and more leisurely inquiries.—We think he has made a very acceptable present to the scientific world in this sketch. We hope he will continue his labours on the subject—and we cannot help expressing a wish, that other American naturalists may be stimulated, by his example, to serve their country, and the interests of philosophy, by prosecuting, in their respective districts, the same branch of inquiry.

The second department of this work consists of a *Review* of American publications on medicine and medical philosophy. The utility and importance of this department are, perhaps, not less than those of the first. So extensive is our country, and so difficult the communication between its distant extremes, that the publications of Massachusetts were often, a few years ago, announced, for the first time, to the literati of the Carolinas, by means of London Reviews. The part of the work before us, therefore, which is devoted to advertising the appearance, and discussing the merits of our native American productions, is of peculiar value—and we are happy in being able to acknowledge, that the criticisms, in general, display much candour, learning, and zeal, for the promotion of liberal science.—We shall by no means undertake to go over the ground which the Editors have thought proper to traverse in their critical examinations—but as we wish our work to exhibit as full a view of American literature as possible, from the time of its commencement, it may not be improper to inform our readers, that the following books and pamphlets, on medicine and medical philosophy, are reviewed in the volume now under consideration.

1. *Medical Inquiries and Observations: Containing an Account of the Bilious Remitting and Intermitting Yellow Fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia in the Year 1794: together with an Inquiry into the Proximate Cause of Fever; and a Defence of Blood-letting, as a Remedy for certain Diseases.* By Benjamin Rush, M. D. Professor of the Institutes, and of Clinical Medicine, in the University of Pennsylvania.
2. *A Memoir concerning the Fascinating Faculty which has been ascribed to the Rattle-snake, and other American Serpents.* By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D. &c.
3. *Medico-Chemical Dissertations on the Causes of the Epidemic, called the Yellow Fever; and on the best Antimo-*

nial Preparations for the Use of Medicine. By a Physician, Practitioner in Philadelphia.

4. *Medicaments, et Precis de la Methode de Mr. Masdevall, &c. &c.*—that is, Prescriptions, and a Sketch of the Method of Mr. Masdevall, Physician of Charles the Fourth, King of Spain, for curing all epidemic, putrid; and malignant Distempers, Fevers of different Kinds, &c. &c. with the Means of Prevention. Divided into Paragraphs, for the Use of Families who are unable to procure Physicians.
5. *Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water.* By Joseph Priestley, L.L. D. F. R. S. &c. &c.
6. *Response aux Reflexions sur la Doctrine du Phlogistique et sur la Decomposition de l'Eau: that is, Answer to the Reflections on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and on the Decomposition of Water.* By P. A. Adet.
7. *An Inaugural Essay on the Yellow Fever, as it appeared in this City (New-York) in 1795, &c.* By Alexander Hosack, jun. A. M. of New-York.
8. *An Inaugural Dissertation on the Operation of Pestilential Fluids upon the large Intestines, termed by Nosologists Dysentery.* By William Bay, Citizen of the State of New-York.
9. *An Inaugural Dissertation on that Grade of the Intestinal State of Fever known by the Name of Dysentery.* By James Fisher, of Delaware, &c.
10. *An Inaugural Dissertation on the Dysentery.* By Colin M'Kenzie, of Baltimore, &c.
11. *An Inaugural Dissertation on Hydrocele.* By Samuel Jones, A. M. &c.
12. *An Inaugural Dissertation on the Rheumatic State of Fever.* By Edward North, of South-Carolina, &c.
13. *An Inaugural Essay on Dropsy, or the Hydropic State of Fever.* By William Allston, of George-Town (South-Carolina), &c.
14. *Two Lectures on Combustion: supplementary to a Course of Lectures on Chemistry, read at Nassau-Hall; containing an Examination of Dr. Priestley's Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water.* By John Maclean, Professor of Mathematics and Natural History in the College of New-Jersey.
15. *Agricultural Experiments on Gypsum, or Plaster of Paris; with some Observations on the fertilizing Quality*

- and *Natural History of that Fossil*. By George Logan, M. D.
16. *Agricultural Inquiries on Plaster of Paris. Also, Facts, Observations, and Conjectures on that Substance, when applied as a Manure, &c.* By Richard Peters.
17. *An Inaugural Dissertation on the Bilious Malignant Fever, read at a public Examination in the University of Cambridge, for the Degree of M. B. July 10, 1797.* By Samuel Brown, A. M.
18. *An Inaugural Dissertation on Camphor.* By John Church, A. M.
19. *A Chemico-Medical Essay, to explain the Operation of Oxygen, or the Base of Vital Air, on the Human Body.* By Benjamin De Witt.
20. *An Inaugural Dissertation on Fractures, &c.* By Robert Black, &c.
21. *A View of the Science of Life; on the Principles established in the Elements of Medicine of the late celebrated John Brown, M. D. with an Attempt to correct some important Errors of that Work. And Cases in Illustration, chiefly selected from the Records of their Practice, at the General Hospital at Calcutta.* By William Yates, and Charles Maclean. To which is subjoined, a *Treatise on the Action of Mercury upon Living Bodies, and its Application for the Cure of Diseases of Indirect Debility. And a Dissertation on the Source of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases; in which it is attempted to prove, by a numerous Induction of Facts, that they never arise from Contagion, but are always produced by certain States, or certain Vicissitudes of the Atmosphere.* By Charles Maclean, of Calcutta.
22. *Observations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water. Part the Second.* By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c.
23. *The Young Chemist's Pocket Companion: connected with a Portable Laboratory, &c. &c.* By James Woodhouse, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania.
24. *An Inaugural Dissertation on Gangrene and Mortification.* By Francis K. Huger, &c.
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27. *Treatise on the Yellow Fever: shewing its Origin, Cure, and Prevention.* By Dr. Joseph Browne, New-York.
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29. *An Inaugural Essay on the Effects of Cold on the Human Body.* By John Edmonds Stock, &c.
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32. *An Inquiry into the Causes of Sterility in both Sexes; with the Method of Cure.* By James Walker, M. P. M. S. &c.

The third department of this valuable collection consists of *Medical and Philosophical News*; in which are exhibited a large body of curious facts, new hints, observations, experiments and inquiries, notices of new works, proceedings of learned societies, &c. &c. collected from every part of the literary and scientific world. Of this extensive and variegated mass we shall only say, that it forms a very instructive and interesting part of the work.

To most of the quarterly numbers of this publication an Appendix is added, containing Medical and Philosophical Papers, which had been before published. Many of these the Editors were undoubtedly right in judging to be worthy of preservation.

We conclude our remarks on this volume, by observing, with regard to the work in general, that, in our opinion, a more valuable publication in its kind has seldom been instituted in any country; and that the manner in which it is conducted does great honour, not only to the Editors themselves, but also to the numerous correspondents, in every part of the United States, who have favoured them with their communications. We are glad to find, that so much encouragement has been received from the public, as to make a second edition

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of the two first volumes necessary. It is our intention to proceed in the examination of the other volumes, now amounting, in the whole, to four, together with the succeeding ones, as they shall regularly appear—and we have no doubt that our readers will accompany us, with pleasure, in our progress, as long as we continue to have such bills of fare for their entertainment as the first volume has furnished.

ARTICLE II.

Essay on Political Society.

[Continued from Page 33, and concluded.]

HAVING given so copious an account of the theory of *general politics*, which occupies the first division of this Essay, we shall proceed to examine, succinctly, the two remaining titles, which treat of the *polity of the American States*, and *forms of government*.

After remarking on the defects of the former *confederation*, and bestowing merited applause on the members of that *convention* which framed the present constitution of the United States, their conduct is thus compared with that of the Gallic convention assembled for a similar purpose.

“Too intent on the interests of their country, too conversant in great affairs, too great in their real honours, to suffer the dignity of their public character to be degraded by the illusions of personal vanity, the framers of the American constitution do not appear to have thought of themselves, except in common with their countrymen. They were not vain enough to believe, that, to guard against the dangers of their personal influence, they ought themselves to be subjected to a species of ostracism, and be proscribed from administering the constitution which they proposed. In a word, they were not vain enough for that ostentation of disinterestedness which prevailed in what was called the French constituting assembly. If they were free from this, the more amiable species of vanity, they were likewise free from the vanity which displays itself in political insolence: They did not require a proportion of their own number to be designated for administering the proposed government.

"Having completed the laborious work for which they were delegated, the framers of the American constitution refer it to the will of society, through the medium of legislative authority, and themselves revert to the mass of citizens. Not a single function of public administration have they exercised, during the time of their being convened; nor have the ordinary operations of government been suspended for a moment.

"The form of political association, which they have proposed as the result of their labours, is to receive its authoritative existence from the *fiat* of society. Nothing is yet changed; but an event of sovereign importance is approaching. A revolution, without parallel in the annals of empire, is hastening to its accomplishment. The efficacy of reason is the force on which the whole depends. To introduce a new form of government, there is no appeal to instruments of death, no display of constitutive armies, no forced choice of two-thirds marching into office through the blood, and over the corse of their countrymen."

This constitution, thus formed and adopted, does not absurdly proclaim its own perfection, or immutability, since it contains a provision for its amendment and reformation. This peculiar and distinguished feature is admirably adapted to the progress and fluctuations of society, without endangering the stability of the general system. The manner in which any constitutional reform is to take place, is adjusted with enlightened foresight and caution.

"Guarding against the rashness of political empiricism, the American constitution requires, for this purpose, not less than two-thirds of the two chambers of Congress, or two-thirds of all the local legislatures. The power of these two-thirds of all the legislators in the united empire extends no further than proposing amendments to the national constitution, or the calling of a convention for proposing amendments. After the amendments are so proposed, not less than three-fourths of the legislative or conventional assemblies in the several States, are necessary to their constitutional ratification."

"In thus providing for the improvement of the system according to the lights of experience," the framers of the constitution, our author supposes, have refuted the speculative errors of LOCKE, and other writers on government, who regarded such a system of "perfective policy" as impracticable.

Congress, and the two chambers of which it is composed, become the next objects of inquiry. The difference of the qualifications of the Electors, and of the modes of electing the

members of the two branches of the legislature, and their respective powers, prescribed by the constitution, are stated and commended in the following terms:

“ On thus comparing the modes of constituting them, the mind is impressed with the idea, that the two legislative orders, as correspondent organs of the two grand interests in society, are destined, by counterpoising each other, to secure to the aristocracy and to the democracy their reciprocal weight in the legislative balance. It is thus that the American Congress, under their existing constitution, affords a conspicuous illustration of general principles of moral policy.

“ None of the ancient or modern leagues, none of the ancient or modern governments in the Old World, exhibits so perfect a national model for municipal legislation upon the elective system. French vanity, indeed, has eulogized their policy as the sublimest monument of human reason. But the defects of the first edition of government which they call a constitution, were proved by its being overthrown almost as soon as it commenced operations: It became obsolete in its infancy. The next project, to which was given the name of constitution, was conceived under the ascendant of Robespierre. This thing, even its parents had not the confidence to exhibit to the French, for their opinion. The third French edition of government, called the constitution of year three, appeared to have more firmness of texture, and to be more capable of duration. Its exterior form, indeed, has been continued, while the brain and the heart, as far as it had any, were anatomized by order of such as directed the armed force.

“ The French legislature, if their two Councils merit the name since the *Fructidorian* subjugation, is a duplicated revolutionary aristocracy; mutilated by pentarchal usurpation; nominally regulated by forms, which, at the bidding of the *pentarchs*, vanish before a decree of urgency.

“ Whether the framers of the American constitution were controlled by an happy necessity of political situation; whether their profound acquaintance with the most correct theories of government determined the frame of the system; or whether a manly force of mind, combined with scientific skill, aided by much personal experience, and influenced by a respectful attention to preconceived opinions, led to a system so original in its general structure, so interwoven in its parts, so compacted by the association of the whole; whether and how far any or all of these causes operated to produce the American constitution, one thing is certain—the citizens of the New

World have abundant cause to felicitate themselves on their political destiny. The American nation has now a municipal legislature constituted to "provide for the common defence and general welfare."

Mistakes are supposed to be made by foreigners in their ideas of the American constitution, regarding it still as a federative league, and liable to all those vices and imperfections, which the new form of government evidently discarded. The equal representation of the States in the senate, was probably the result of that "spirit of mutual deference and concession," which actuated the members of the Convention, and was adopted with a view to quiet the apprehensions, and secure the interests of the smaller States. This is the principal federal feature in the constitution; but when the senators have taken their seats, each senator has one vote; and, in the whole business of legislation, the "principle of federalism is abandoned in both chambers of Congress." "A majority of the members of each constitutes a quorum to do business," and all legislative questions are decided by a majority of that quorum.

"But the idea of a mere federative league of States vanishes in the decisive view of this subject, the view of the ordinary operation of the acts of the American Congress.—These acts cannot, without a preposterous abuse of terms, be styled diplomatic agreements, provisional pacts, reserved for the eventual ratification of separate states. No! These acts are legislative determinations, intended to operate immediately on individuals: And as guaranteeing their uniform efficacy, the government is organized with authorities to expound and to enforce them under the national constitution."

In the third section, the *Presidency*, or the nature, extent, and operation of the powers of the executive, in relation to *domestic* and *foreign* concerns, is investigated and compared with the executive authority, as exhibited in the British and French constitutions. The organization of those powers is shown to be more consistent with the principles of justice, the security of freedom, and not less adapted to the just administration of government, than the *monarchical* and *pentarchal* forms.—Praise is bestowed on the *qualified veto* of the President, and the dangerous absurdity of the French *pentarchy* is justly condemned, as vitious in theory, and as having, in practice, violated the principles of justice, of liberty and political security.

The power of the Senate, in regard to appointments, while it operates as a salutary check, does not impede the activity, or impair the energy of the executive authority.

“Theirs is not a coercive, but a cautionary, power; it is a power to negative, and not a power to originate; a power to reject, not a power to propose.

“This power of the Senate in the executive province, we may observe, has analogy to the power of the President in the legislative. As the national constitution has entrusted the President with power to object against bills passed by the legislature; so now it intrusts a chamber of the legislature with power to reject nominations made by the President. Thus is the check reciprocated. In both cases the rejective power is a power to prevent wrong; it *hath this extent, no more.*

“Accordingly, in the case now under examination, it presents a security against errors of the President. Without distracting the executive unity, it guards against evils which might otherwise result from depositing the power of executive appointments with an individual. This senatorial check, therefore, in an elective government, instead of being a defect, may be regarded as an improvement in executive polity.”

The power of decreeing war is considered as wisely lodged in the legislature. Against those who are disposed to resort to the history of the English government, for arguments in support of an opposite opinion, the authority of MILLAR is quoted to prove, that the power of declaring war was originally vested in the *Saxon Wittenagemote*. It was not until after the *Norman conquest*, and the consequent introduction of strong feudal principles, that that power was transferred to the monarch, and became a branch of the royal prerogative.

The arguments of various political writers in favour of an hereditary magistracy, are supposed to be refuted, and the examples adduced by them, in support of their opinions, shown to be delusive or inapplicable. Nothing is more easily perverted than analogical reasoning of this kind. It would, probably, gratify many of our readers to see the whole of this branch of our author's inquiry—but our limits will permit us to extract only that portion of it which is more immediately applicable to our own government.

“On this point we may, in vain, consult the past or the actual governments of the Old World. All their answers, like Delphic responses, are illusory or indefinite. The discovery has also eluded all the researches of philosophers in all past ages.

“The glory of unloosing this Gordian knot was reserved to distinguish the American name. On the subject of executive magistracy, their polity is rich with precious instruction. Let us examine it on the question before us,

"In the first place, then, it is to be noted, that the Presidency of the American States is delegated for a defined period. This tends to exclude the impatience and dissention which are generated by conferring the chief magistracy indefinitely, and vesting it as an estate for life.

"The electors of the American President are also themselves elected, and for this single purpose, and by the voice of society. Such considerations essentially discriminate the liberal system of America from the disorderly despotism of Poland, and Germany, and Rome; and, of themselves, expose the inconclusiveness of the historical argument against elective succession. The same considerations also push aside the patriarchal practices.

"There are further American regulations, however, which are worthy of particular regard. But before scrutinizing them, and the better to form a general estimate, let us advert, for a moment, to one of the prominent peculiarities of the American polity; for such, undoubtedly, is the distinction of their particular States. This distinction has primarily arisen from the territorial divisions which marked the limits of late British colonies in that part of the globe. These limits have been regarded in the successive modifications of their system. The several States, now united under the American constitution, appear as so many territorial divisions, or circles, within the political association. Being organical parts of the nation, they are distinctly organized for performing offices which immediately respect themselves. Accordingly, each of them has its own local administration; which is to attend to the public interest of the circle, and consists of correspondent authorities for deliberation and execution. Yet, in perfect consistency with this idea, the conduct of the national affairs is confided to a national administration. This distinct organization of the respective circles, I am aware, has been censured as a defect in the American order of things. That it could not, in any particular, be modified for the better, is not here affirmed. Whether, on attending critically to the local organizations, as in relation to the national policy, there would or would not be found errors which should be corrected, is too much a question of detail for our immediate discussion. I speak, therefore, of the American order of things in general, when I say, that the distinction of the organized circles or states, far from meriting censure as a defect, is to be numbered among the happy adaptations of principles to situation. Yes! in establishing such distinct organization of the national

body, the American genius, in the spirit of the true sublime, has gloriously offended against the dogmata of political criticism.

"These ideas being recollected, it is observable, that, for the purpose of electing the American President, the electoral body is distributed into as many parts as there are organized circles within the empire. The respective electors of the President derive their mandatory character from the voices of these circles; and must be elected from among the simple citizens, or the local functionaries: for no legislator, or other officer in the national government, can, by the constitution, be "appointed an elector."

"In judging of these provisions, can the accurate observer fail to remark the discrepance between the American system and the practices in Poland, and Germany, and Rome? In America, those who have any place in the general government of the nation are all, without reserve, excluded from being electors. In the Polish, and the Germanic, and the Roman practices, such exclusion has been unknown. In France, the plan for pentarchal immaculacy is, to filtrate the mass of competitors through the two chambers, which are called Councils, and which serve as *bureaus* for enregistering edicts.

"If we reflect on the use of the exclusion, by which the American system is thus distinguished, it may, doubtless, be pronounced favourable to the manifestation of the electoral voice of the empire. As far as the electors of their President are officers in the local administrations, their own political consideration is, more or less, adverse to partial combinations of persons in the national administration. The interests of the simple citizens, when electors, are also adverse to such combination. The American system, therefore, in excluding from the electoral trust all who have any place in the general government, guards against the baneful efficacy of the partial combinations and official rivalries so observable in countries where no such exclusion has been known. Indeed, so discrepant from every thing before recorded in history is the American polity, and such, of consequence, must be the operation of circumstances on the electors of the national chief, that "the passions and interests of the electors" exact, instead of excluding, a "consideration of the qualities" of the candidates." Although the office in question is highly elevated, it is yet a distinction which the electors, from the exigence of constitutional situation, are disposed to confer upon what they regard as merit.

"So inapplicable to the American polity are the observa-

tions made by the Arch-deacon of Carlisle, in his comparison between hereditary and elective monarchy.

"Should the literary advocate for hereditary magistracy begin, by this time, to suppose it possible that the elective system may be proper, for a country in the situation of the American States, he may be told, that their polity is further distinguishable from the examples which we have agreed with him in condemning.—The electors of the American President, being elected, as we have remarked, within the respective circles of the empire, are not to be locked up like a conclave of Cardinals; nor are they to be assembled all at one place, as in the cases of Poland and of Germany; nor do they exhibit a military mob disposing of the Imperatorial purple; nor are they kept in two enregistering *bureaus*, like the pentarchal notaries. No! the American "electors shall meet in their respective States;" and "the day on which they shall give their votes shall be the same throughout the United States."

All the difficulties which have arisen about the sovereign power, and the rights or duties of resistance and obedience, are considered as completely solved, by the doctrine, that the "*political sovereignty resides in society.*"

"By means of the political constitution, which is the national charter that manifests the permanent will of society, this sovereign commands, in the last resort, each citizen, as well as each part, and, consequently, the whole of the public administration.

"According to the contemplated doctrine of political sovereignty, the respective parts of the State, whether simple citizens or public functionaries, all are, upon moral principles, required, and, in the event, are, upon physical principles, irresistibly compellable to render obedience. The right and the power of eventual resistance to the sovereign, questions which have made so much noise in the world, are thus completely excluded by our system."

In this section, however, as well as in some others, we cannot but remark, with regret, that the intellectual ardour of our author should hurry him into flights of rhetoric, bordering on extravagance and rant, and which are wholly unsuited to the gravity of his subject. The sober reader cannot be much edified or delighted with such mystical passages as the following, however sublimely figurative they may seem to the writer.

"The obscuration of the enthroned sun; the indistinction of the consorted moon; the destitution of the starry host,—such is the state of the political firmament in the West."

After exhibiting a view of the *judicative* authority of the United States, and speaking in terms of high commendation of the improvements introduced, in modern times, into courts of a maritime jurisdiction, the author proceeds to consider the judicial power, in its interesting political aspect, as a barrier and safeguard to the constitution.

“Such is the nature of the American polity, that the national tribunals have an important office in the political order.

“Their authority may be compared with that of the tribunate in ancient Rome, as we proceed to make some general remarks on that institution. The tribunitian power in Rome was intended to guard the common liberty against the despotism of other authorities or orders in the state. It was a cautionary power, instituted to defend liberty against encroachment. Its value, in the political system, was that of a shield, not that of a spear: It might protect liberty, by rendering of no efficacy such measures as attacked it; but might not wound liberty, because, from its formation, impotent to wound. In its original use, being wholly defensive, the tribunitian power did not involve the authority to *decree municipal enactments*, but by a *veto* to defeat such as would encroach on liberty.

“In Rome, however, as there was no definitive constitution, there was no established standard of liberty, with which the proceedings of those having public power might, every instant, be compared. Hence, the Roman tribunate was liable to abuse, according to the various dispositions of those invested with this authority; and eventually was employed for the service of the enemy. Placed in the hands of Emperors, who had accumulated to themselves the command of the other public powers, the authority of the tribunate, instead of being the shield of liberty, became a barrier of despotism.

“But the national tribunate of the American States is established on principles far superior to what obtained in Rome even before the usurpation of the hypocritical Octavius. In America, a permanent constitution definitively marks the great outlines of public liberty. The authority of the tribunate, therefore, in nullifying such measures as would transgress the limits so defined, may regularly check the advance of encroachment, and, by a moral force, defeat the march of usurpation.

“The importance of this power to the conservation of the political order in America may be estimated from the peculiar structure of their system. The national association compre-

hends various territorial circles, all of which, as already noticed, have governmental powers for local purposes. The danger of dismemberment, to be apprehended from these local powers, demands attention. Wisely, therefore, has the American constitution established various provisions, restricting the territorial government from exercising their powers to the national injury. In some instances they are restricted from exercising any power relative to certain objects of general concernment. In other instances, they are restricted from exercising certain enumerated powers without consent of the Congress. In others they are restricted from exercising particular powers, except in urgent cases, defined in the constitution. In addition to these restrictions, the members of the territorial governments are bound, by oath or affirmation, to support the constitution of the United States.

“Although the observance of the constitutional order is thus fortified by the solemnity of religious engagement, all this has not been judged sufficient to secure the system against the errors incident to the human character. The bias of particular situation, the pressure of circumstances, the impulse of the moment, may operate to exclude, from the minds of honourable men, that deliberate attention which is favourable to a correct estimate of constitutional principles. Misguided even by an honest zeal, while reason is obscured by prejudice, or clouded by passion, the man who venerates the obligations of constitutional duty may vary from the true course. As relative to the conservation of the whole political order, the danger from such causes was to be provided against.

“Further; the spirit of emulation, which is fostered by the nature of the American system, a spirit of such national utility, when controlled by proper checks, but degenerating into such fatal animosities when operating without restraint, this spirit, undoubtedly, merited circumspect attention with reference to attempts on the constitutional order.

“The danger of violating that order would also be augmented in proportion as the territorial administrations might have, in their composition, a mixture of the ambitious, the daring, the disappointed, the insidious, the turbulent. While good men respect the sanctity of public duty, the Catalines may sneer at the principles of honest policy, and, profaning the name of liberty by their professions of devotion, may employ it for the purposes of nefarious rapacity. These political agitators, the loquacious ministers of insubordination and vice, among people ardently attached to liberty, and in the unsuspecting zeal of

honest men, may find various facilities for aiding their pestilent machinations against the public order. Who will say, that no such evils were to be apprehended from any of the territorial governments throughout the extent of the American States?

“Under a view of such various dangers, a tribunate established on a firmer basis than is known perhaps in any other part of the globe,—there is but one European country, I presume, whose tribunals are equally firm in their establishment—such a tribunate appears as one of the great barriers which American foresight has erected for defending their constitution against invasions of the territorial administrations.”

The power of the Supreme Court, to decide on the validity or constitutionality of a statute of the United States, appears to be established by the judiciary act. To *English* lawyers this power may appear extraordinary; but, in the history of their *great charter, charters of confirmation, charter of the forest,* and of the *articuli super chartas*, a similar power seems to have been conceded to the judicial tribunals for the preservation of those *charters of common liberties*.

Aware of the objection which may be made to the magnitude of this power, and to the danger of its abuse, it is observed, that

“The national legislature, if two thirds of both chambers are dissatisfied with the tribunitan construction of the constitution, may refer the subject to the will of society, by proposing, as an amendment, a declaratory article for establishing explicitly the sense in which the constitution shall, or shall not, be construed. The eventual determination of society, as to an amendment so proposed, establishes the constitutional point. If the judicative officers, after this, will perversely refuse to respect the sovereign determination in a matter no longer admitting of doubt—a supposition, however, as improbable as illiberal! yet, to give the objection full scope, let the incredible supposition be made! if then, I say, such should be the paradoxical fact—do not your own principles denounce such perverseness as ill behaviour in office? Impeach, then, the perverse men! The two chambers of Congress divide between them the power to impeach and to try impeachments. Would they, in such case, want the disposition to exercise their power? Who cannot see that for such cause there would be impeachment, and that the impeachment would be followed by conviction? The persons convicted are, of course, removed. The constitution is vindicated.”

Our author thus concludes this branch of his inquiry:

"On a general review, then, of the American polity, it is observable, that, in ordinating the national constitution, there has been established *one chief legislature*, styled THE CONGRESS; and *one chief executor* of the law, styled THE PRESIDENT; and *one chief tribunal*, styled THE SUPREME COURT. These co-ordinate authorities have RECIPROCAL OFFICES. Over the whole is ONE SOVEREIGN POWER; from whom their constitutional capacities are all derived; to whom they all are mutually subordinated; for whom, and by whom, the whole administration exists; and whose is the absolute dominion of the whole realm. The sovereign, being essentially the permanent will of the integral society, is irresistible as the totality of human power, imperishable as human society, invisible as the human soul.

"Estimable vindicators of regulated liberty! Ye happiest of the human race! American citizens! It is yours to have constructed the first definitive constitution on the globe. Although the possibility of its improvement has been suggested in the freedom of liberal admiration, it is to your eminent honour, that the great proportions of your political structure are distinguished by superlative excellence. To maintain the edifice and render it complete in every part, concerns your own glory and the felicity of the universe."

Under the *third* and last title the subject is considered *synthetically*.

The following paragraph contains the summary of the opinions of this writer of the excellence of our political constitution.

"Compared with policies of an opposite character, how superior is such system of social organization, such political assemblage of justice! Although the true political society is neither a monarchy, nor an aristocracy, nor a democracy; yet it embraces the advantages, and repudiates the abuses, of them all. From the nature of its organization, it conciliates the respective interests in society, and attaches them mutually to the public interest. It has the popular sensibility, without the capricious folly of democracy. It has the stable wisdom, without the privileged stateliness of aristocracy. It has the concentrated energy, without the autocratic violence of monarchy."

To which we add, in the ardour of our attachment to this system, and to our country, whose political happiness it is intended to secure, *esto perpetua!*

Our satisfaction in the perusal of this volume has been considerably diminished by those occasional *rhapsodies*, into which the author has been impelled by an ardent imagination. This fault, for such it will be regarded by most readers, is the more to be regretted, as this essay discovers proofs of a mind capable of deep investigation, enlarged views, and vigorous exertions, in the path of political and moral inquiry.—In our researches after truth, the eye must be steadily fixed on its object, and not easily be diverted by the glittering images which play around it.

From that lofty spirit of abstraction, which disdains all detail, the author seldom condescends to examine particulars, or to exhibit his subject in a manner the most striking, popular, and instructive.

An undue solicitude to preserve the dignity of the philosopher, and the ground of general theory, often prevents a full elucidation of his ideas, while a conscious fear of not been thoroughly understood leads him into frequent repetitions.—From the manner in which the author unfolds his subject, the greater number of readers will be induced to believe, that the book is too difficult and abstruse for their comprehension, and will lay it aside, in despair of receiving either pleasure or instruction. But by those who are habituated to consider politics as a science, the outline of the American polity here given, will be regarded as ingenious and brilliant; evincive of strong powers of discrimination and research. The eulogy which it contains on the constitution of the United States, though highly wrought, is, we shall be excused for believing, more justly bestowed than any which has yet been pronounced on any other form of political institution.

The language of this *essay* is, in general, forcible and correct; but new words are too often coined, and some antiquated expressions are introduced, to suit, perhaps, the metaphysical cast of the thoughts. If it were not for certain words almost peculiar to our country, and which none but a native would probably use, we might naturally conclude from the style, that this work was the production of a foreigner.

The author has evidently studied in the *Gallic* school of political philosophy, from which he has derived many modes of expression not to be found in the best English writers. But his principles, it is proper to observe, are drawn from purer sources.

ARTICLE III.

Thoughts on the increasing Wealth and national Economy of the United States of America. 8vo. pp. 40. Washington, Way and Groff. 1801. *By Samuel Bledget*

THE subject of this pamphlet is of great importance, and the reflections and statements it contains are new and curious. The style, however, we are sorry to observe, is perplexed, quaint, inaccurate, and obscure. The writer's drift is to be gained, and his reasonings to be wrought into coherence, by the imagination of the reader, after much pause and much scrutiny. In the performance itself, we look in vain for perspicuity and method. It appears more like a string of casual and disjointed memorandums than a regular treatise.

The general purpose of the writer seems to be to prove the utility of public debts, and the actual diminution of our present debt, in consequence, first, of increase of population, and, secondly, of increase of the price of labour.

If a debt of eighty millions of dollars is to be paid by four millions of persons, the proportion of each person is twenty dollars; but if the same debt be chargeable on five millions, the proportion of each is sixteen dollars. If the price of labour be one dollar per day, or that of grain be one dollar per bushel, twenty days labour, or twenty bushels of grain for each person, are requisite to pay this debt in the former instance. If the price of grain and of labour be doubled, eight bushels of grain, or eight days labour from each person in the *second* instance, will effect the purpose.

It is extremely evident, that a debt, whose *nominal* amount continues the same, is *really* diminished by lessening the value of money, or increasing the number of payers. If Thomas has a claim upon me for forty dollars, in the year 1790, and another person, in the year 1800, consents to divide the debt with me, and to pay half, my real debt amounts only to twenty dollars. If, in the first year, I could earn no more than forty dollars in forty days, but now I can earn the same sum in half the time, my real debt is only ten dollars, or one-fourth of the original amount; and though the claim of Thomas is still for forty dollars, the value of the debt to him is lessened *one* half,

since forty dollars will *now* purchase only half the labour or grain which it would purchase *then*.

Changes, somewhat similar to these, are supposed, by this writer, to have actually taken place in the United States. The increase of the precious metals, by lessening their value, and the increase of population, by lessening the proportion of each man, together with the increase of the actual sinking fund, have lessened, he thinks, the national debt in the course of nine years, from a charge on each man of the price of thirty-eight days labour, or nineteen bushels wheat, to that of twelve days labour, or six bushels of wheat.

The difference between metallic pieces and paper securities, in good credit, is nothing. By increasing the latter, therefore, we increase, in the same proportion, the circulating medium, or *money capital* of the nation. The increase of this medium is always highly beneficial. In a nation, whose numbers are constantly increasing, the increase of this medium is not only useful, but necessary.

Increase of numbers, while the medium is stationary, operates, it is plain, like a diminution of the medium, and this diminution is the parent of a thousand miseries. It is, therefore, the duty of legislators, to increase the circulating medium at all times; for where numbers are stationary, this increase enhances the general prosperity; where numbers are augmenting, a proportionable increase of the medium is demanded to keep their prosperity from declining.

The medium can be increased in two ways; by adding to the number of metal pieces that are current, or of those pieces of paper which represent and perform all the functions of a given number of those metallic pieces.

The writer thinks that the continual supply from the Spanish mines has increased the number of metal pieces throughout the world, and that of this increase we have had our share. The annual consumption of the precious metals has been shown by ADAM SMITH, to be nearly equal to the annual supply; and though the quantity, on the whole, in a long period of years, may be augmented, the quantity circulating in one nation cannot be materially affected, during a short period, by this cause, but may be very considerably affected, in a very short period, by other causes.

The easier method of augmenting this medium, and that which the author thinks it is the duty of wise governors always to adopt, is the creation of stock. This process, according to him, added a very large sum, in the year 1791, to our mo-

ney capital, and produced the most salutary effects on the languishing industry of the nation. This capital is, *nominally*, greater at present; but, in consequence of the increase of population, and of the price of grain and labour, is little more than one-third as much. This virtual decrease has not, for several reasons, produced so much horror and despair as might have been expected; but he deems it necessary to raise, by the creation of a new stock, the circulating medium to, at least, an equal height with that to which it has risen in former periods. For this end he proposes to increase the national debt to three times the present amount, that is, to about *two hundred and fifty millions* of dollars; the punctual payment of the interest on which, and the annual sinking of some small part of the principal, would convert this stock into an equivalent for gold and silver, and thereby furnish industry with sufficient tools to work with. The interest on this debt, to be raised by the sale of public lands, or by some other way, at six per cent. would amount to *fifteen millions* of dollars.

A national debt has been so long considered as an evil, that to propose it as a benefit will sound very strangely to many ears. The author seems somewhat aware of this, and endeavours to reconcile us to his opinion, not only by expatiating on that property of public stock, by which it becomes equal to its market price in specie, but, also, by explaining the tendency of increasing population to lessen the burthen by dividing it, and by stating the immensity of that fund from which this debt is ultimately to be paid.

This fund is a public landed estate or national demesne, equal to the area of one-third of the United States; the price of which, limited by law to not less than two dollars per acre, is continually increasing. Other nations contract debt, when the public resources are no more than sufficient to pay the interest, but this nation possesses funds, which will spontaneously and inevitably increase in value far beyond the possibility of being exhausted by debts.

The loans which other nations obtain from their subjects are immediately wasted on unproductive labour, or in the purchase of pernicious commodities: they are turned into soldiers, ammunition and arms: whereas the loans to our own government might be immediately employed in constructing roads, harbours, and canals; in building navies to defend our commerce, and granting premiums to encourage manufactures.

The creation of stock, this author believes, will not only augment the money capital, by the actual amount of stock,

but by drawing wealthy foreigners hither, who are naturally tempted to transfer their whole property and persons to that country, in the public funds of which they have previously purchased to a large amount. Many cases of this kind are said to have lately happened.

The conclusions of this writer would be opposed by the disciples of ADAM SMITH, with reasons somewhat like the following :

A public stock equal in value to a thousand dollars, can be raised only by the payment of that sum into the hands of government, for which paper is given in exchange. This paper is the evidence of what is due, and while the debtor's credit is good, may be exchanged for money, and thereby replace to the holder the sum which he originally gave for it. The holder's capital, therefore, is not diminished by the purchase of this paper; but how is the capital of the nation, in general, or the circulating medium of exchange, augmented by its creation? Specie, to an equal amount, was given to the government for this paper, and it can be employed as capital only by being transferred by him that bought it first to his neighbour, for the sum in specie which he gave for it. The current gold and silver, therefore, may be differently directed and employed, in consequence of lending to the government; but the quantity of current *money* is not thereby augmented.

The thousand dollars which I gave for this paper was part of my capital before I gave it. It now becomes part of the capital of other people, and ceases to be of immediate use to me; but the paper I hold, though in my hands dormant and inactive, is a means of resuming possession of the thousand dollars when wanted. My neighbour will give me the money for the paper, and this new thousand becomes again part of my capital, but then it has ceased to become a part of my neighbour's capital.

According to this statement it appears, that public stock may indeed take money from the disposal of individuals, and place it under that of the government, but that the amount of circulating medium is neither lessened nor increased by this process.

If the market price of a looking-glass be one hundred dollars, and I give that sum for it, a hundred dollars is not added to the circulating medium, but only transferred from me to another. In exchange for it, however, I have gotten something which may be of some use while I have it, and which I may, at any time, exchange for an hundred dollars.

The difference between a public security and a looking-glass, lies in the latter being of some direct use while we have it, and the former being of no direct use. The former, like the latter, may also be exchanged for so much specie, and it also entitles us to receive six dollars a year; but the entire sum of an hundred dollars, and the annual sum of six dollars, equally come from the pockets of other people, and, in becoming a capital to me, ceases to be a capital to them. The whole money capital, or circulating medium, remains the same.

If I have capital in money, I may choose to employ it myself, or lend it to another who employs it. If I lend it, I take a note or bond for the amount, with interest. If I would repossess myself of this capital, I exact payment, or I sell the evidence of my debt to my neighbour. In either case it is plain, that capital is indeed transferred from one to another, but that the whole amount of capital in the country is the same. It makes no difference in this respect, whether the borrower be the public or an individual.

The truth of this inference, however, depends upon one circumstance. If the paper security, whether of a public or a private nature, be bought by a fellow citizen, the circulating medium is unaltered; but if it be purchased by a foreigner, this medium is augmented. In the former case, the capital of one citizen is only transferred to another; but, in the latter case, the capital of one country is transferred to another. In this mode, the creation of American stock may directly and immediately increase the medium of exchange in America at the expense of other nations, but this accession will be gradually lessened by the payment of interest, and be wholly lost by the redemption of the principal.

If five millions of stock be created in the year 1802, and this stock be transferred, backward and forward, among citizens, the quantity of circulating medium is unaltered by it; but if this stock be purchased, immediately or ultimately, by natives of Europe, *who give specie for it*, the monied capital of the country is increased; if they give commodities in exchange for it, the fixed capital, that is, the tools, materials, and means of our industry, are proportionably augmented.

It is not on this latter effect of the creation of stock that the writer before us chiefly insists. He seems to think, that the mere issuing of securities for five millions, or the borrowing and funding of that sum, by the public, is, *ipso facto*, an addition, to that amount, to the circulating medium. In his view, the sale of this stock to foreigners operates more beneficially

than the sale to citizens, merely because it tends to bring into the country the purchasers themselves, with all the residue of their capital, and to keep in the country the interest which they periodically receive.

This effect seems to be undeniable. Purchasers of stock will naturally follow their property. It is a new cable, in addition to the comparative superiority of our laws and manners, by which we draw the opulent and diligent from foreign shores, and empty the coffers of Germany and Holland into our own; but this is the only way in which the circulating medium is augmented by the creation of stock. If the stock be sold to citizens, affairs are unaltered; if to foreigners, for money, we are richer in money; if to foreigners, for goods, we are richer in goods; and, likewise, indirectly, in money, since the money which we should otherwise be obliged to give for those goods is kept among us: if holders of stock remain abroad, our nation is poorer in money by the interest we pay them. If they come among us, we save this interest, and the principal, when that is redeemed, and we likewise gain the capital they bring with them.

If paper securities were exchangeable, in all cases, for commodities, they would be, to all intents and purposes, money. Promissory notes, either of individuals, of corporate bodies, as bank notes, or of the nation, when current at their nominal value, are perfectly equivalent to, and far more commodious, than metal pieces.

If I issue notes to the amount of 1000 dollars, payable at sight, and my credit be unquestionable, so that my notes are as readily exchangeable, in traffic, for goods as gold or silver pieces to the same amount would be, I have actually added that sum to the circulating medium of the country.

If I give a bond (and this is the nature of public securities) for a thousand dollars, binding me to the payment, quarterly, of fifteen dollars, till I choose to repay the principal sum, I do not, indeed (my credit being good), add that sum necessarily to the circulating medium, but I add to such medium whatever sum that bond will certainly and notoriously bring if sent to market.

The amount of the market price of this bond is no more a dormant and inactive capital while in my hands, than an equal number of dollars would be, if a vender of bread and cloth will as readily take this bond, at the market price, as the same amount in dollars.

There are two circumstances, however, which render such,

paper less current, less exchangeable, than promissory notes of a bank. First, bank notes are of almost all values, and therefore accommodate themselves to every one's uses and occasions. Secondly, the current value of such notes is notorious and immutable; but neither of these properties belong to public stock; yet, though in consequence of wanting these advantages, the paper circulates less easily, and its value is more depreciated, it is still true, that the circulating medium is, to a certain degree, augmented by it; that, on some occasions, it is the substitute of money.

It seems, at first sight, as if the distinction between money, and that which can always be exchanged for money, was futile and nugatory. If the venders of bread and cloth always refuse to give their commodities for *paper*; and there are always to be found persons who will give money for paper (according to a certain valuation), there is no essential difference between money in this form and money in bank; between silver, and paper convertible at will to silver.

This is true in relation to the individual, but not to the nation. To have money, or money's worth, is nearly the same thing to the master of a warehouse; but paper, which must first be turned into money before it can buy bread, essentially resembles salt, or any other commodity for which there is always a demand. There is a perpetual difference between the things in traffic and the medium or instrument by which they are exchanged, between the wheel and the waggon-load. Paper may be converted into silver, but the quantity converted will depend upon the quantity of silver unemployed in maintaining productive labour. They who employ money in purchasing provisions, tools, and materials, cannot employ it in purchasing paper. So that bills, notes, or bonds, which are not, of themselves, and directly, exchangeable for provisions, tools, and materials, add nothing to the circulating medium of a country.

The table subjoined to these "Thoughts" is said to be compiled chiefly from official documents. It contains a very curious and clear exhibition of the state of our country for the last ten years. Some parts of it are, no doubt, conjectural, but greater accuracy could hardly be expected. As we presume that most of our readers will be pleased to possess so convenient and valuable a document, we shall extract it entire.

" A STATISTICAL TABLE for the UNITED STATES of AMERICA, for a Succession of Years, compiled chiefly from Official Documents.

" Length of the United States, 1250 miles—Breadth, 1040 miles—Containing more than one million of square miles, or 640 millions of acres.

Years.	Population.	Improved Lands, part of 640 millions acres.	Militia.	Navy United States.	Seamen.	EXPORTS.		Tonnage merchant vessels.	Receipts, Revenue, &c. Dollars.	Expenditure.	MONEY.				Deduct from the Debt.		Dormant and Active Sinking Fund.
						Domestic Pro- duce.	Total. Dollars.				Metallic Me- dium.	Nominal Public Debt.	Active Sinking Fund.	Custom-House Bonds receivable and Cash in the Treasury.			
1774	2,486,000	20,860,000	421,300	—	15,000	6,100,000	6,100,000	198,000	—	—	4,000,000	200,000,000	—	—	—	Specie by law of Congress of Aug. 1790, dollars 2,000,000.	
1784	3,250,000	21,500,000	541,666	—	18,000	9,000,000	10,150,000	250,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Ditto, surplus of duties per ditto.	
1790	3,930,000	30,000,000	654,000	—	25,000	14,200,900	16,000,000	486,890	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Ditto of May, 1792.	
1791	4,047,900	31,000,000	677,650	—	28,000	14,600,000	18,399,202	502,698	4,771,200	3,797,439	9,000,000	72,237,501	—	—	—	Proceeds sale Lake Erie land.	
1792	4,169,337	32,000,000	694,889	—	30,000	15,060,500	21,005,568	567,698	8,771,600	8,962,920	18,000,000	77,124,503	—	—	—	4500 lots in the city of Washington.	
1793	4,294,417	33,500,000	715,736	—	33,000	15,420,000	22,011,788	627,570	9,450,195	6,479,977	20,000,000	78,402,230	—	—	—	235 millions acres lands limited by law at no less than 2 dills. per acre,	
1794	4,423,249	34,000,000	737,208	—	39,000	16,200,100	23,043,725	626,617	9,439,855	9,041,592	21,500,000	79,424,668	—	—	—	Dollars, 470,000,000.	
1795	4,555,946	34,550,000	759,324	—	43,000	18,064,050	27,855,556	747,964	9,515,758	10,151,940	19,000,000	84,989,438	—	—	—	N.B. Part of the above lands have sold for more than the above price. It is proposed that part of the residue should be rented, and also the lots in Washington.	
1796	4,692,624	35,100,000	782,104	—	51,500	20,024,021	31,064,037	831,900	8,740,329	8,367,776	16,500,000	83,401,139	—	—	—		
1797	4,832,402	35,600,000	805,571	3 124	60,200	21,032,671	31,294,710	876,912	8,738,780	8,625,877	16,000,000	81,324,139	—	—	—		
1798	4,978,404	36,100,000	829,734	13 350	62,800	27,991,413	31,327,411	893,329	8,179,170	8,383,618	14,000,000	81,244,139	—	—	—		
1799	5,127,756	36,300,000	854,620	12 950	63,500	33,142,187	38,665,522	920,000	12,549,381	11,004,965	17,000,000	88,456,038	—	—	—		

" To account for the fluctuation of our metallic medium it must be observed, that funding the debt and establishing the national bank occasioned the great influx from 1790 to 1795; after which the speculations on our commerce occasioned the decline till the loan of five millions, 1799, when specie again returned for the purchase of stock."

ARTICLE IV.

Medical and Physical Memoirs; containing, among other subjects, a particular Inquiry into the Origin and Nature of the late pestilential Epidemics of the United States. By Charles Caldwell, M. D. 8vo. pp. 296. Philadelphia: T. & W. Bradford. 1801.

THIS volume contains four distinct memoirs; the first is a topographical account of Philadelphia, the city in which the author resides, drawn up with intent to detect the local and domestic sources of pestilential diseases there. The second is a sequel to the first, and principally consists of a number of pieces, originally published in the newspapers, with the design of convincing Dr. C.'s fellow citizens, that the late epidemic of Philadelphia was neither a contagious nor, consequently, an imported disease: that it (meaning the yellow fever) is only a higher grade of the common bilious fever of the country; and, lastly, that it is essentially different from the jail distemper. The third memoir is devoted to an examination of the question relative to the hybernation of swallows beneath the water of rivers and ponds; the author opposes this opinion, and contends, that swallows migrate to warmer regions. The fourth is employed in an attempt to show that the exciting cause of the bronchocele, or goitre, is not the same with that, whatever it be, which produces intermittent and remittent fevers, dysenteries, and other similar complaints, as has been some time since expressed as a matter of belief by a respectable American author.

Such being the general subjects of these "Medical and Physical Memoirs," we proceed to a more particular examination of each of them. And, first,

Concerning the physical Sketch of the City of Philadelphia.

Hippocrates pointed out the way for descriptions and inquiries of these kinds, in his Treatise *de Aëre, Aquis, et Locis*. It appeared to that father of physic, that both the atmosphere and the water derived many of their qualities from the *loca*, or geological characters of places. Thus, if a *place*, or portion of earth, abounded with substances capable of being raised

into vapour, or converted into the aërial form, by the heat of the weather, during any season of the year, the incumbent atmosphere must necessarily be tinctured thereby; and, if these exhalations were of a noxious quality, such a portion of atmosphere would be proportionably injurious to the health of men residing in it. In like manner Hippocrates knew, that if rain-water descended through a portion of atmosphere, charged with aërial productions from the ground beneath, such water would be mingled with these foreign ingredients, and by them be rendered unwholesome; and similar qualities would be imparted to the dews by these terrestrial exhalations. It was further evident, that saline, metallic, and earthy substances, entered into the composition of the strata of the globe, and that water, resting upon, or running through these, would dissolve a portion of those materials, and receive therefrom an alteration of qualities. Hence it was wisely concluded, that, in order to comprehend the exact constitution of the air, and of the water in any region, it was necessary to know the composition and nature of the materials in the soil and strata below. A knowledge of physical geography is, therefore, essentially necessary to a right understanding of the qualities of the *air* and *water* in any given place. Now, on the qualities of *air* and *water* depends, in a great degree, the health enjoyed by the inhabitants of such situations. But these cannot be comprehended unless it is previously known what substances may be volatilized by heat, and infect the atmosphere by their presence, and what other matters may yield to the dissolving power of the waters, and impregnate fountains and morasses.

To acquire correct information on all these points, is a task of extraordinary difficulty; for, to be perfect in them there must be added to an acquaintance with mineralogy, or a specific knowledge of the strata of earthy substance, an acquaintance no less minute with the analysis of waters, and of the constitution of the atmosphere. On all these subjects, however, human knowledge is limited; for terrestrial bodies have not hitherto been wholly resolved into their elements; the constituent parts of aqueous substances are hard to be precisely separated and ascertained, and disputes still exist among the ablest experimenters concerning the composition and nature of several aëriform productions. What wonder, then, if the ancient physician, who drew an admirable outline, did not finish the picture? How much beyond the ken of the greater number of modern writers are the necessary topics of discussion? Considering the various and extensive talents requisite for such

descriptions and explanations, we need not be surprised that the principal part of book-makers have written with little intelligence about them, or have omitted them altogether.

From this general character, however, Dr. C. forms an honourable exception. Well aware of the importance of this kind of topographical information, he has undertaken a physical sketch of the situation and peculiarities of Philadelphia; and shown how, from a knowledge of the local circumstances of that city and its inhabitants, their visitations by pestilence can be accounted for. He proves that most of the large cities of the United States are not only hotter than the surrounding country, during three months of the year, but actually suffer from the fervours of a tropical climate, and must, consequently, be afflicted by tropical diseases. The predisposition to these distempers is increased by the preceding coldness, purity, and wholesomeness of the air in the winter and spring, and beginning of summer. From the first of June to the end of August, the quicksilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, between noon and four P. M. is, in general, from the 80th to the 86th degree in Philadelphia, and not unfrequently is stationary for an equal duration at the 90th: it even, sometimes, ascends to the 95th. On the other hand, the quicksilver now and then descends to fifth and sixth above, and then, again, to as many degrees below Zero, during the coldest season of the year.

Having made these observations on the climate, the author gives a description of the site of the city itself, which we shall offer to the reader in his own words.

"Philadelphia (the original soil of which consisted principally of a humid clay) stands on a plain, but little diversified by eminences, and intersected formerly by a few streams of water, which have been arched over, and two of them converted into streets.

"Its altitude above the level of the ocean I have been unable to ascertain. I believe the matter has never been examined, either by actual survey or barometrical measurement. Judging, however, from the length and current of the river on which it stands, taken in connection with the nature and productions of the surrounding country, it would appear to be considerable. The whole plain is subtended by a stratum of granite rock, which lies at the distance of about forty-five or fifty feet beneath the surface of the earth.

"The site of the city, though not very low, is evidently, like the whole country east of our great granite ridge, of secondary origin. It is washed to the eastward by the Delaware,

and to the west by the Schuylkill, and lies about five miles above the confluence of these two rivers. Its elevation above low water mark ranges from forty-five to fifty-five feet, the highest spot being the point of the intersection of Chesnut and Broad streets.

"To this elevation, Water and Penn streets, running along the shore of the Delaware, constitute an exception. Leaving the general level by an abrupt descent, they are many feet lower than any other part of the city.

"It deserves to be remarked, that in these depressed situations, where the air is particularly liable to become motionless and contaminated, our autumnal pestilence has always commenced its epidemic ravages. This disease has appeared twice within a few paces of the same spot in Penn-street, which runs immediately at the foot of a steep eminence that was once most probably the bank of the river.

"Indeed, both Water and Penn streets, together with the narrow skirt of land to the eastward of them, appear to have been gained from the water by the gradual operation of time.

"I might extend this remark farther, in the present instance, and observe, that from the numerous breccia and alluvial matters which lie scattered over our commons, it is evident that the site of our city, like most other parts of our country, is of Neptunian origin.

"Without supposing the fact to have any particular relation to the health of our citizens, I would observe, that the tide, moving at the rate of about four miles an hour, flows at the same time, and preserves the same level in the Delaware and Schuylkill. Common or neap tides rise from six to seven, and spring tides from seven and an half to nine feet. The elevation of these tides is materially influenced by the force, direction, and duration of the winds.

"The temperature of our well-water ranges from fifty to fifty-three, on the scale of Fahrenheit. From my own experiments on the subject, the latter appears to be the most general standard. I believe (though I write only from memory) that Dr. Franklin fixed it at fifty-two. This difference of a degree might readily result from a difference of thermometers.

"Perhaps the temperature is, in some measure, influenced by the depth of the well. This, however, I propose only as a conjecture, having made no comparative experiments to ascertain its truth.

"Though it is suspected by some, that the foregoing adulteration of our well-water has an unfavourable effect on the

health of our citizens, I am unable to trace its connection with any particular description of disease. The impurities contracted by our waters from the contents of necessaries, and other artificial sources of filth, threaten us with consequences much more alarming.

“No experiments have been hitherto made to develop the nature of these impurities. It is probable, however, that they are the same products of putrefaction which, when volatilized and thrown into the atmosphere, give origin to the various descriptions of bilious fevers. If these poisonous matters are so terrible in their effects when taken into the system through the medium of respiration, they cannot be innocent when swallowed with our drink.

“In sinking many of our wells, certain curious and interesting discoveries have been made, relative to the subterraneous geography of Philadelphia.

“At the depth of from twenty-eight to thirty-five feet beneath the surface of the ground, our well-diggers have found, in a state of entire preservation, various vegetable relics, such as hickory nuts and acorns, together with the bark, leaves, roots, and branches of trees.

“Nor has this been the case in only one part of the city. I am well informed of the same thing having occurred in Penn-street, in Dock-street, near Third, in Seventh-street, near Arch, in Tenth-street, near Race, in Kensington, and in the vicinity of the Centre-square.

“I have now in my possession two specimens of a fossil vegetable, one of the bark, and the other of the root of a pine tree, which must have been of a considerable size, that were dug, a few years ago, out of a well in Tenth-street, from the distance of thirty feet beneath the surface of the ground. Both the smell and texture of these specimens are nearly as complete as if they were just taken from one of the living pines of our forests.

“At about the same depth, in Seventh, between Arch and Race streets, a well-digger found, a few years since, branches of timber not less than four or five inches in diameter.”

Dr. C. complains that on this bottom a vast amount of noxious matter is collected in the docks, wharves, gutters, cellars, privies, common sewers, and grave-yards, as well as in the foul holds of ships and vessels; whence a prodigious quantity of pestilential air may be evolved.

We have long to lament that, in our variable latitude, greater care was not taken to adapt houses to the climate. The dwell-

ling places of men in the middle and northern parts of America are, in general, badly planned, for they are mostly very hot in summer, and very cold in winter: we therefore willingly quote what Dr. C. has written on this subject.

“The manner in which the houses of Philadelphia, and, indeed, of our country in general, are constructed, is by no means favourable for the prevention of disease.

“Instead of being, in all respects, adapted to the genius and character of our climate, they are built in perfect imitation of the houses of Great-Britain. In this particular, as in too many others, it is fashion and habit, not experience and reason, that command our homage.

“The builders of houses in Philadelphia should recollect, that, at opposite seasons of the year, we have to encounter great extremes of temperature. What can equal the occasional severity of the cold of our winters, unless it be the still greater intensity of our summer heats!

“To counteract, as far as possible, the influence of these extremes, should be a leading object in the construction of our habitations.

“For this purpose, our walls should be much thicker, and our windows much smaller and fewer in number, than comports with the fashionable style of building.

“What can be more irrational and absurd, in a bleak and piercing winter-day, than a house, with a multitude of windows reaching almost from the ceiling to the floor, unless it be the same house, admitting through the same windows the undiminished blaze of the summer's sun? Such a phenomenon is no less unworthy of thinking beings, than would be that of a large piece cut out of a garment to render it a warmer covering, or a hole formed in an umbrella to increase its fitness for protecting us from the solar rays.

“However paradoxical it may appear to some, it is unquestionably true, that the principal part of the heat of our houses in summer, and much of their cold in winter, gain admission through the windows. On a knowledge of this fact is founded the practice so common with our old house-keepers, of shutting up their rooms during the heat of the day in summer, in order to preserve in them an agreeable temperature.

“The jail of Philadelphia, notwithstanding it is considerably crowded by inhabitants, is, in the summer season, by far the coolest building in the city. This I advance, not as an opinion founded on conjecture or analogy, but as a fact ascertained by actual experiments during the heats of last July.

" Added to the many other circumstances, suggested and devised by an enlightened and humane policy, which combine in softening the condition of the prisoners in our jail, these unfortunate characters enjoy the most comfortable retreat from the intemperance of our climate. For this they are indebted, in particular, to the thick walls and small windows of their place of confinement.

" The Spaniards are said to surpass the inhabitants of all other European countries in the art of counteracting the influence of a warm climate by the construction of their houses. For this purpose they make their walls thick, their windows small, and their apartments spacious.

" Hence, by many persons, whose minds are probably more under the influence of prejudice than good sense, Spanish dwellings are said to resemble family prisons; and, as that people are noted for habits of jealousy, are supposed to be constructed for the express purpose of securing the chastity of their females, by concealing them more effectually from the public eye. Let us, for a moment, analyse this subject, and we will find, that their plan of building is directed by principles strictly philosophical.

" The warmth of our apartments, in the summer season, is the result of the external influence of the sun, either entering immediately through the windows, or making its way more gradually through the solid walls. The smaller and fewer the windows are, the fewer sun-beams will they admit, to excite heat by their action on the interior parts of the houses; and the thicker the walls are, the more difficult will it be for the heat to pass through them, and raise the temperature of the internal atmosphere.

" If, in addition to small windows and thick walls, the apartments be large, the security against the external heat will be carried still nearer to perfection; for the larger the internal volume of air, in proportion to the avenues for the admission of heat, the less liable will it be to an increase of temperature. Very large apartments possess, both in summer and in winter, a kind of insulated atmospheres, to a certain degree, independent of the external air. Hence, a principal reason why the temperature of the atmosphere, in St. Paul's church in London, is, in summer, from six to eight degrees lower than that of the general atmosphere of the city.

" The people of the Barbary states, as well as the inhabitants of most of the warm countries of the east, appear to possess just ideas relative to the effect of numerous and large windows,

in the admission of heat. Hence their dwellings present to view but little else than dead walls. However unsightly and gloomy this may appear to the traveller accustomed to the style of buildings in Europe and America, it forms the best defence against the intense heats, particularly the scorching winds, that prevail in many parts of Asia and Africa.

"From this brief consideration of the philosophy of single houses, I shall pass to a few remarks on the general construction of cities.

"To preserve coolness throughout a large city, in a warm climate, the buildings should be lofty, and the streets narrow. This remark is not the less true, in consequence of its opposition to popular opinion. For however it may be in matters of morality, on physical subjects, common opinion is generally wrong.

"By constructing cities in the above manner, the buildings, by their loftiness, would protect the streets from the rays of the sun, and the citizens might constantly walk in the shade. The sun-beams could not, from the walls and windows of the houses, be reflected into the streets, as from the sides of reverberating furnaces. They would be, in a great measure, intercepted by the roofs of the buildings, and thrown back again into the open air. In a word, lofty houses and narrow streets would diminish greatly the number of lateral and downward reflectors in large cities, and could not, therefore, fail to diminish proportionally the temperature of the atmosphere.

"Let it not be supposed that narrow streets are incompatible with free ventilation. Air will circulate as freely in an avenue of twenty as in one of a hundred feet wide.

"It is even true, that lateral confinement increases the celerity in the progressive motion of fluids and gasses. Hence the rapidity of currents of water through the narrows of rivers, and of air through close defiles of mountains.

"Nor will the narrowness of streets, provided the squares of a city be not cut up by lanes and alleys, produce an excessive increase in the number of houses. If the centres of the squares be open, and abound in vegetation, there will be little to be apprehended from the closeness of buildings round their circumferences.

"It is to be lamented, that the plan of the city of Washington—a city expressly founded as the metropolis of a great nation (and destined, perhaps, to empire and grandeur, surpassing those of Carthage or Rome)—it is to be lamented, I say, that the plan of this city is so illy adapted to the genius of our cli-

mate. The streets are too wide, and the buildings too low, to furnish any protection against the solar rays. This unfortunate error can be remedied only by planting the streets and public squares with lofty trees, and refreshing the city by currents of water.

"Nor will even this precaution act as a perfect counterpoise to the evil in question. It is, however, the only practicable resource; and unless it be adopted, it requires no spirit of prophecy to foretell, that should the city of Washington ever acquire that extent and population which its august name and destination promise, the summer temperature of its atmosphere will be but little below that of the inhospitable desert of Zaara."

In the course of his discussion we observe that Dr. C. very properly condemns the excessive consumption of flesh meats, ardent spirits, strong wines, and high-seasoned dishes, which the Anglo-Americans, after the custom of their British ancestors, indulge in, most perniciously, during the hottest weather; and recommends, instead thereof, a diet chiefly vegetable, the weaker wines, malt liquors, lemonade, and cider. His advice on the use of flannel, and on dress in general, is worthy of attention, especially by valetudinarians and ladies.

When we consider the judgment and discernment displayed by Dr. C. in this memoir, we are somewhat surprised that he should affirm, at this time, that our knowledge of the fluid we breathe is too limited to enable us to advance any thing satisfactory concerning that constitution of it under which pestilential epidemics occur. He frequently mentions local sources of pestilential vapours. He speaks of their contributing to produce a contaminated state of the atmosphere; of their being the birth-place of pestilence; of their vitiating the atmosphere with deleterious effluvia; of their engendering the seeds of the late epidemics; of their polluting the streets of the city; of injury sustained by domestic animals from these laboratories of poison; of impregnations of the air unfriendly to animal nature; of gases hostile to the health of man, &c. &c. And yet, though these mischievous productions are home-bred, and from substances laying before his eyes and under his nose, Dr. C. knows nothing satisfactory about them. He affirms (p. 26.) that the well-water of Philadelphia contains salt-petre. This fact, which is also applicable to most other cities, leads the inquiring mind to the exciting cause of these calamities. The physician who writes a book will be presumed to be enough of a naturalist and philosopher to know that this is not a fossil impregnation (p. 26.), and that it is a problem of much less

difficult solution than *the salinity of the ocean.* (p. 27.) A moment's reflection might have satisfied Dr. C. that the neutral salt under consideration consists of an animal acid united to a vegetable alkali; and that the former is derived from some of the putrefying substances which he accuses of emitting poisonous effluvia, while the latter is produced during the incineration of the wood burned for the convenience of the inhabitants. These two substances combining chemically in cellars, yards, and streets, form salt-petre; which, dissolving in water, and soaking through the ground, at length finds for itself a passage into the wells. Original observers (not mere compilers of volumes) from BECCHER up to BUILLON LA GRANGE, have testified that the albuminous and fibrous parts of animals *turned sour* in the incipient stages of putrefaction. This acid can be quelled by pot-ash, soda, and ammoniac; and these alkalies are therefore called *antiseptics*, as the acid which they overcome, being formed in the progress of putrid fermentation, is called *septic acid*. This acid has been often smelled and tasted by the persons whom it made sick. It sometimes poisons them when admitted to bleeding wounds, and at other times produces fevers and dysenteries, when acting in a gaseous form; and, notwithstanding these and many other considerations equally cogent, Dr. C. professes to know nothing about the matter. Oils can incorporate with it also; for if he will inquire of the Nantucket whalers, he may learn, that blubber which is barrelled up in its crude state at sea, eventually to undergo the boiling process on shore, often contains a portion of the fibrous or muscular substance of the fish, which, corrupting on the voyage, forms septic acid, and this mingling with the oil, vitiates its quality remarkably, and renders it less fit for burning, &c. Hence we learn why whaling voyages are remarkably exempted from febrile distempers. Lime has a similar neutralizing power, as the poor people, in some of the foul cellars and pestilential tenements of New-York, in 1798, have amply testified; for when, by order of the commissioners of the health office, a plenty of this absorbent earth was employed in their habitations, the sweetening, comfortable, and reviving effect of it surpassed expression in words. All experience, too, had proved, that water, and alkalies, and oil, and lime (for these are employed in preparing leys and soaps), would prevent the formation of pestilential fluids in the clothes and habitations of men, or extinguish them if they existed. We would recommend to Dr. C. of whose talents we entertain a very favourable opinion, to examine,

for himself; the phenomena of putrefaction, *between the time the septic acid is formed, and its association with pot-ash into salt-petre*; for we are well satisfied he will be richly rewarded for his trouble, by becoming acquainted with a multitude of most important facts, either not noticed or not understood by the generality of writers. But we pass on to the second memoir.

The subjects of this piece are generally agreed to in most of the sea-ports of America. In New-York, Boston, New-London, Baltimore, Norfolk, and Charleston, the most considerate citizens are convinced of the local origin of the exciting cause of their annual endemics. The notion of specific contagion is exploded. Importation, in the mercantile sense of the word, is no longer credited; ships being considered as apt to become foul and pestilential from *inbred causes*, without deriving contagion from foreign sources, or exotic articles taken on board. Whether, therefore, a man is taken sick within the sides of a ship or the walls of an house, is a matter of little moment as respects the nature of his disease. In both cases the diseases are children of the same parents; differing, indeed, in some of their natural marks and features, but, at the same time, so strongly characterized by the family-likeness, as to strike the notice of every careful observer. In Philadelphia, where the belief of the contagiousness of yellow fever, and of its introduction from abroad, has been more prevalent than in any other of our cities, the author has been commendably employed in endeavouring to wean the inhabitants from so unfounded and unhappy a prejudice. The ten addresses which constitute this part of the volume, extending from the seventy-fifth to the two hundred and thirty-fifth page, which promise to be most useful to the Philadelphians, are comparatively of the least value to the inhabitants of the other towns enumerated, where the errors which the author combats either do not exist, or have a very limited influence. We therefore make no extracts from them, presuming their contents are already known to the intelligent part of the people for whom they were more immediately intended. We lament, however, that there should be any diminution of force in Dr. C.'s reasoning, when he treats of the typhus mitior of nosologists, and contends that it is a disease wholly different in its nature from the yellow fever. To us, we must own, there appears, after all he has said, no refutation of the opinion that the two diseases arise from a similar exciting cause. So far from being convinced of the existence of a radical difference between the two diseases, we are still disposed to believe the weight of evidence greatly pre-

ponderates in favour of their specific similarity and origin from a common source. Extreme cases, as in other diseases, may differ exceedingly; but the nice shades of distinction between those which approximate and run into each other, cannot be defined or marked by the practical physician. The abstract nosologist may split and divide them as he pleases; but the clinical observer, true to nature, considers them as kindred maladies, modified by constitution, season, quantity and concentration of *virus*, and various other circumstances. We have known yellow fever degenerate to typhus.

The next memoir, which is the third in the book, will not detain us long. Four reputable witnesses of the disappearance of swallows under water had stated their testimony of the fact. Mr. POLLOCK and Mr. SEBOR declared they saw flocks of these birds plunge into the water of the Hudson, and disappear, on the 24th of August, 1798; and Mr. COLE and Mr. BROOKS state, that on the 3d of September, the same year, they both saw swallows disappear beneath the water of a fresh-water pond near New-York, and that they rose no more. These are the facts, and these, connected with many others on record, tend to confirm an opinion, held by some naturalists, of the hybernation of these birds in the bottom of ponds and rivers. Dr. C. is a strenuous opposer of this notion, and endeavours to show that there might be deception of sight in making these observations. But as we know the persons, and have heard their statements, we find no reason to distrust their accuracy either in seeing or in relating what they saw. We have no doubt, therefore, that swallows, in great numbers, sometimes go under water. This, it must be owned, is an odd phenomenon. But the author strives to prove, from pathological considerations, and *a priori* estimates, the impossibility of their living there and emerging alive at a future day. Though we do not affirm this to be positively the fact, yet we do not view the matter as either absurd in itself, or impossible in nature. Life is sometimes held from its grantor under very singular conditions, and it is not for man to prescribe the forms or duration of the tenure. Though its limitations and provisions in swallows are very different from those allotted to himself and many other creatures, man ought to see and admire them, and not deny the existence of such peculiarities, or contradict those who have witnessed their reality.

A priori speculations are of little avail, and of no value, in these cases. Such reasoning would have taught us that a breathing animal, deprived of air for a year or more, would

certainly die; and yet experience teaches that toads have been found alive, after enclosure in blocks of marble for centuries unknown. The same kind of logic assures us that animals, or their parts, which have been congealed by frost, have their organization destroyed, and are no more excitable to life; and yet fishermen know that perch and eels, and several other animals, can sometimes revive after having been frozen as stiff as an icicle; and trouts have been brought from Sacondago to Albany, a distance of more than fifty miles, in a state of congelation, to market, and have revived in the kitchen of the purchaser when put into a pail of cold water to thaw. By the same mode of reasoning we should conclude that a human being, deprived of food for several months, would be starved to death; yet there have been occurrences where life has been preserved an extraordinary length of time without alimentary sustenance. So, some species of insects, flies for example, are susceptible of revivification after long submersion in wine, notwithstanding the apparent improbability of such an event. Now, should Dr. C. undertake to enclose toads in rocks, to render fishes rigid by frost, to keep a man six months without aliment, or to preserve the lives of insects in vinous liquors, he would, probably, fail to resuscitate them in every instance: and such experiments would militate just as much against the facts related, as his forcibly drowning of the two little victims of his curiosity (p. 261) does against the voluntary submersion of others of the species in their own way, and at their proper season. This is a subject not to be established by reasoning; but the fact being established, we are to reconcile it to our reason as well as we can; we therefore conclude Dr. C. has not, in the memoir before us, in any degree increased our knowledge of this part of natural history. That flocks of swallows may migrate to other regions we do not dispute: that they have been found hybernating in hollow trees is as little to be doubted: but it must be remembered that the genus *hirundo* consists of several species, and the individual history of each of these is not as yet sufficiently known to us. Before we form an ultimate decision on the point, we should be glad to collect further information on their respective habits and ways of life, and then, perhaps, we shall be enabled to form a better judgment which of them fly away to the warmer latitudes, which shelter themselves in holes and caves, and which commit themselves to the protection of the waters.

We shall say little on the fourth memoir, as it relates merely to a speculative opinion on the cause of *goitre*. DR. BARTON

had stated, what appears to us far from being a dangerous or improbable opinion, that *goitre* acknowledges, as a principal remote cause, a miasm of the same sort which produces fevers, dysenteries, and the like maladies; but Dr. C. is of a different sentiment, though, after stating his objections at large, he declines offering any theory of his own.

As to the further character of the performance, it is in some places pompous, and in others incorrect; medicine, for instance, which is usually termed *an art*, is here elevated (p. 1) *into a science*; party spirit is said to have *daringly trespassed upon the palladium of private character*; he refers to the late *Dr. Belknap's History of Connecticut* (a work we never heard of before) for proof of a genuine pestilence prevailing among the aborigines of America (p. 169): he mentions *the phantom-light of the errors* of minds of a superior order (Pref.) The word *epidemic* is, throughout the book, used instead of *endemic*. There is a colloquial use of "*ninety-seven, ninety-eight and ninety-nine*," for the corresponding years of the eighteenth century (p. 147). But lest we should seem to have sought passages of this kind with too curious an eye, we here conclude our remarks.

ARTICLE V.

*Reports of Cases in the County Courts of the fifth Circuit, and in the High Court of Errors and Appeals of the State of Pennsylvania; and Charges to Grand Juries of those County Courts. By Alexander Addison, President of the Courts of Common Pleas of the fifth Circuit of the State of Pennsylvania. 8vo. pp. 714. Washington. John Cole-
rick. 1800.*

"**A** SUBSTANTIAL, and a compendious report of a case rightly adjudged, doth produce," says Sir Edward Coke, "three notable effects: First, it openeth the understanding of the reader and hearer: Secondly, it breaketh through difficulties; and, thirdly, it bringeth home to the hand of the studious, variety of pleasure and profit: I say, it doth set open the window of the laws to let in that gladsome light, whereby the right reason of the rule (the beauty of the law) may be clearly discerned; it breaketh the thick and hard shell, whereby, with pleasure

and ease, the sweetness of the kernel may be sensibly tasted, and adorneth, with variety of fruits, both pleasant and profitable, the store-houses of those by whom they were never planted nor watered."

The utility of reporting judicial decisions must be obvious to all who are apprized of the influence which precedent assumes, and exercises in our courts of justice; and it is to be regretted, that no performance, similar to the one now before us, has yet been produced in the State of New-York.

But we are happy to announce, that the profession may expect soon to be supplied with such a work, by the gentleman, whose publication we noticed in our former Review.*

Even when the juridical constitutions of independent States or Districts permit none but domestic decisions to operate as precedents, a report of this kind may still be perused with considerable advantage; for though the doctrines of the law are neither so obscure or indefinite as is vulgarly apprehended, yet, from the perpetual occurrence of *new* cases, exposition and illustration are frequently necessary; and a judge or an advocate may be readily furnished with sound reasons and ingenious arguments, by referring to parallel cases that have already been litigated in some remote theatre of human jurisprudence.

Even to the moralist, and to the man who is curious to behold a picture of the manners of a people, among whom the obligations of social justice, and the refinements of civilization are not yet predominant, this volume may not be wholly uninteresting. The cases of public prosecution for crimes and misdemeanors exhibit a variety of facts detailed in evidence, from which some knowledge may be acquired of the morals, domestic circumstances, and local customs of the inhabitants of the western counties of Pennsylvania.

The cases in the county courts are chiefly trials *per pais*, and contain the evidence, and charge of the president to the jury, as well as their verdict. On the correctness of the decisions of the court we do not undertake to decide. The reports are written with perspicuity; and those in the court of appeals display considerable learning and ingenuity. Their value, however, to professional men, in other States, must be greatly diminished, by the difference of laws, and the want of the sanction of authority.

Near one half of the volume is occupied with the CHARGES given by the learned president, to the grand juries of the coun-

ties of the fifth circuit, and may be regarded as so many *Essays*, on some important legal and political topics. Whoever considers the trespasses, riots, and felonies committed in those counties, and the formidable insurrections which have there taken place, will not think these attempts to enlighten the people, and to inculcate the duties of morality and religion, and peaceable submission to the laws and government, as unreasonable or improper. President ADDISON, in a note, alludes to some censures cast upon him for those charges, by writers of opposite politics; but he consoles himself with the belief, that they proceeded not from the wisest and the best of men, and with the testimony given in his favour, by the venerable character whose name is subscribed to the following letter.

“ *Mount Vernon, 4th March, 1799.* ”

“ SIR,

“ YOUR favour of the 31st of January, enclosing your charge to the grand juries of the county courts of the fifth circuit of the State of Pennsylvania, at the last December sessions, has been duly received, and for the enclosure I thank you.

“ I wish, sincerely, that your good example, in endeavouring to bring the people of these United States more acquainted with the laws and principles of their government, was followed. They only require a proper understanding of these to judge rightly on all great national questions; but, unfortunately, infinite more pains is taken to blind them by one description of men, than there is to open their eyes by the other; which, in my opinion, is the source of most of the evils we labour under.

“ With very great esteem, I am, Sir,

“ Your most obedient servant,

“ GEORGE WASHINGTON.”

But whatever may be the intrinsic merit of these charges, gentlemen of the law, for whose use the volume, from its title, seems principally designed, will have just reason to complain, that so large a portion of matter, foreign to a book of Reports, has been inserted. To suit the different tastes and pursuits of different readers, it would have been more proper to have published the Reports and Charges separately.

The latter are twenty-seven in number; on the following subjects:—1. *The Judicial Constitution of Pennsylvania*—2. *Principles and Forms of Public Prosecutions*—3. *Principles, Nature, and End of Public Punishments*—4. *Principles of Laws and Crimes*—5. *Duty of a Grand Jury*—6. *Separation of different Branches of Power in a Republic*:

Duty of Courts and Juries, as to Law and Fact—7. Persons exempted from Punishment as incapable of Offences: Manner in which Offenders may be guilty—8. Observations on the Duty of a Grand Jury—9. Progress of Governments and Punishments: State of Punishments in Pennsylvania—10. Laws and Sanctions of God, the State, and the Society: The Duty of enforcing each of these by the Sanctions of Society, Honour and Shame—11. Virtue, the End of Government, is best secured by a Democratic Form of Government: Principles resulting from a Democracy—12. Necessity of Submission to the Excise Law—13. Remarks on the late Insurrection—14. Religion, Society, and Government, necessary for Man—15. Virtue, the Principle of a Democratic Republic: The Necessity of Virtue in a People, especially in Elections—16. Nature and Modification of a Representative Democracy—17. Abuse of Fairs—18. Distribution of the Sovereignty in a constitutional Government—19. The Constitution and Principles of our Government: A Security of Liberty—20. Causes and Error of Complaint, and Jealousy of the Administration of the Government—21. Distribution of the Powers of a Republican Government in subordinate Jurisdictions—22. Abstract Principles insecure Grounds of a Democratic Government, unless the People can be made wise and virtuous—23. Qualifications of Electors—24. Experiment, the true Source of Knowledge; and that is the best Government which best secures social and domestic Happiness—25. Liberty of Speech, and of the Press—26. A Defence of the Alien Act—27. Importance of Public Institutions for Instruction.

This enumeration exhibits subjects of great importance in jurisprudence and government.

By the constitution of Pennsylvania, framed in 1790, a material change was made in the judiciary system. The State is divided into circuits, at present consisting of five, each comprehending not more than six, nor less than three counties.—Four judges are appointed for each county; and a *president* of the courts for each circuit, who are required to reside within their respective jurisdictions. The president and judges, any two of whom make a quorum, compose the courts of common pleas for the several counties. The members of these courts are also, *ex officio*, justices of oyer and terminer, and general jail delivery, for the trial of capital and other offences within their respective counties.—The exercise of this power is suspended when the justices of the supreme court are sitting in

the same county.—The powers of a court of chancery are also given to the supreme court, and courts of common pleas. The county judges, or any two of them, may hold quarter sessions of the peace, and orphan's court, and, with the register of wills for the county, compose a register's court. They have also power, within their respective counties, to issue writs of *certiorari*, to justices of the peace, to bring their proceedings before the court; and, so far as relates to criminal matters, are justices of the peace.

The president and judges derive their authority, by appointment, from the Governor, not, as before, from the people; and hold their commissions during good behaviour, with fixed salaries, amounting, in the whole, to about five thousand pounds a year. The salaries of all the judges of all the courts in the State amount, scarcely, to the sum of eight thousand pounds, or the one-tenth part of what is paid to the judges of the courts of law in Great-Britain, and not equal to the salary of the English chief justice alone.

The wisdom and benefits of this system for the administration of justice, superior to that prevailing in many other states, are well explained and enforced by sound reflections in the first *charge* given by the respectable president of the fifth circuit.

It would be gratifying to us to proceed in the separate examination of each of these *charges* in their order, and to make extracts from each, but this would swell our review beyond its proper limits. They contain a large, diversified, and valuable mass of information of a practical kind, on points the most momentous which can engage the attention of a free people, who feel any concern for individual virtue and happiness, or for the welfare and prosperity of the nation. The writer manifests a strong and rational attachment to liberty, and a republican form of government, and a solicitude for the maintenance of order, peace, and a just administration of public affairs, so essential to their preservation.—The greater portion of these *charges* indicate erudition, good sense, and a diligent observation of mankind; and if they were listened to with the attention and candour they appear to discover, the efforts of *president A.* to instruct the grand jurors, and, through them, the people of the circuit in which he is the chief judicial magistrate, cannot be ineffectual or fruitless.

Those who, from their situation in life, or from choice, are led to the study of jurisprudence and government, will not, it is probable, meet with many new ideas in this volume; but the great majority of people who have little leisure, and, too of-

ten, less inclination for such inquiries, will find subjects which they are deeply interested to understand, investigated and explained with considerable clearness and force of reasoning, and in language neat, perspicuous and correct.

If the general tendency of a book be considered as the best criterion of its value, the present publication will not be thought destitute of merit.

It will be perceived, from the enumeration of the *titles* of these *essays*, that some of them relate to questions, about which there has been a diversity of opinion, between those of opposite political sentiments, and even among persons of the same party.

We shall not attempt to discuss the truth of the principles they contain, or the expediency of the measures they are intended to support.—We have too long witnessed the inexpugnable nature of such opinions to imagine that they can be reconciled or changed by any influence less powerful than that of experience.

ARTICLE VI.

A Century Sermon, or Sketches of the History of the Eighteenth Century; interspersed and closed with serious practical Remarks. Delivered at North-Haven, January 1, 1801. By Benjamin Trumbull, D. D. Pastor of the Church in North-Haven. 8vo. pp. 36. New-Haven. Read and Morse. 1801.

THE basis of this discourse is laid in two texts; 1 Chronicles xxix. 29, 30. “*Now the acts of David the king, first and last, behold they are written in the book of Samuel the seer, and in the book of Nathan the prophet, and in the book of Gad the seer, with all his reign and his might, and the times that went over him, and over Israel, and over all the kingdoms of the countries.*” And Psalm lxxvii. 11, 12. “*I will remember the works of the Lord: surely I will remember thy wonders of old. I will meditate also of all thy work, and talk of thy doings.*” The reverend author confines himself principally to the events of the last century; but, on some subjects, he is minute to a fault. The exordium contains a vindication of the practice of calling the attention of men, on proper occasions, to

the operations of Providence; after which Dr. Trumbull proceeds to unfold his design, which is "to give a sketch of the works of God, in the century past, in Europe and other parts of the old world; and especially of his dispensations towards America, the United States, New-England, and the *town of North-Haven*." This design is executed with more regard to order and method than was discoverable in some discourses, delivered on the same occasion, which we were called upon to review in our last number. But there is a particularity in the detail of small events in this sermon which is not strictly proper; because it occupies time which might have been used to better purpose; and, because, it derogates from the dignity of the preacher, and ill accords with the greatness of his general theme. Though much useful information may be derived from these details, yet there are vehicles far better adapted to convey it than a century sermon. To trace the progress of genius, to investigate the causes of political and moral revolutions, to mark the ever-varying characters of individuals and of nations, and, above all, to explore the mysterious providences of God with regard to his church, are objects worthy the preacher and the pulpit. Of the propriety of keeping the latter object in view Dr. T. is sensible. "In this sketch," says he (p. 4), "I shall more especially notice those events which respect the church of God, in which prophecies have been fulfilled, and the work of redemption advanced." Many of those events he has noticed; but, by assembling in the same group with them events of very inferior importance, and sometimes of no importance at all, he has given an appearance of incongruity to his performance. After speaking of great national affairs, of the fulfilment of prophecy, and of the work of redemption, such details as the following appear trivial.

"The settlement was very slow, and it seems that for nearly forty years some of the first planters attended public worship, and buried their dead at New-Haven. The women usually went on foot to New-Haven, on the Lord's day, attended two long exercises, and returned. In some instances they did this with a child in their arms. The inhabitants were not made a distinct ecclesiastical society until the sessions of the general assembly, in October, 1716, when they were vested with all the privileges of such a society. The honourable Nathan Gold, Esq. deputy-governor, and the Rev. Samuel Andrews, then pastor of the church at Milford, were appointed a committee to repair to North-Haven, and to assist the parish in appointing a place in which to erect their meeting-house, and

to advise them with respect to the settlement of an orthodox and worthy minister. The Rev. Mr. James Pierpont had given them the plat of ground on which the meeting-house now stands, upon condition that the people would erect their house of worship upon it. This was thankfully accepted.—A house for public worship was erected about 1618—*thirty-eight or forty by twenty-eight. The posts were of a proper height for good galleries.*

“There have been in the church ten deacons; David Yale and Samuel Ives, chosen 1718. Deacon Ives died November 25, 1726. Samuel Todd succeeded him, chosen about 1727, &c.

“The first military officers chosen and commissioned in North-Haven, were Capt. Joseph Ives, Lieut. John Granis, and Ensign Samuel Ives. They received their commissions at the session of the general assembly, October, 1718.

“Your ancestors were few in number, but you are now increased to about fourteen hundred souls. They were clothed and fed coarsely, and fared hardly; but you are generally dressed with elegance, and have not only the conveniences, but many of the delicacies of life. They were compassed with a wilderness, with wild beasts and savage men. But you dwell amidst cultivated and pleasant fields, orchards and gardens, and have nothing to fear from either. In their times, the ways were unoccupied. A solitary path through a dreary swamp or wood led to their humble cottages. But your roads are broad and smooth, and your houses are large and elegant. They had every thing to do, but their means were small. You have houses builded, wells digged, gardens planted, orchards and trees of various fruit prepared to your hands. They were under great disadvantages for schooling their children, not only on account of their low circumstances, but of their distance from each other, and of the danger of children's travelling so far through groves and swamps; but you have distinguishing advantages to get wisdom yourselves, and to school your children. Your advantages, in these respects, are much greater now than they were at the time of my settlement with you. There was then but one school-house within the limits of the parish: now you have eight school-districts, and the same number of school-houses, generally commodious and well built. Your progress in knowledge, civilization, agriculture, and manufactures, has been very considerable. You have experienced no such distressing seasons of general sickness and mortality as the inhabitants had been visited with in former years. Your

population has been very great, though, on the account of the numerous emigrations, and the setting off of a large number of families to the parish of Mount-Carmal, you are not, perhaps, more numerous than you were in 1759. In October, 1786, you were made a distinct town, and vested with all the immunities of such a free corporation. You have a large and convenient house for the public worship, *an elegant steeple, a large and excellent bell*. You enjoy peace among yourselves, and the blessings of uncommon health pervade your habitations. Are not the lines fallen to us in pleasant places? Have we not a goodly heritage? What more is necessary to complete our happiness than thankful and obedient hearts, rendering unto the Lord according to his benefits?"

These particulars might, with some propriety, have been thrown into a note; but to see items of this sort in the body of a *century sermon*, amidst the revolutions of empires, and the concussions of a world, may well excite a smile.

The concluding part of this discourse is solemn, dignified, and impressive. We regret that the whole is not equally worthy of its venerable penman. Inaccuracies and inelegancies in language not unfrequently occur. (P. 11) "America, New-England, and the United States, in the same period, have witnessed great events and salvations. At the commencement of the century, they" (that is, America, New-England, and the United States) "were few in number, poor, and scattered over a vast tract of country, the principal part of which was a *vast wilderness*." The term *country* is not unusually applied to one of the four grand divisions of the globe. (P. 6) "The progress in history and geography in Europe and America has been very considerable. *In both countries* there have been great improvements," &c. We can see no sufficient reason why the good old English word "*approve*" should retire before the modern intruder "*approve*." (p. 19). Dr. T.'s method of citing scripture is worthy of notice. It is usual with him to preface the text quoted with "saith he," "saith the apostle," &c. The common way of introducing a word or two of the text, before the sign of quotation, is certainly more graceful. On the whole, excepting the concluding pages, a few instructive and spirited passages, this sermon contains little which might have been expected from the reputation of the learned and respectable author but its piety. Some useful information, with respect to the internal state of our country and its institutions, may be derived from the notes and appendix.

ARTICLE VII.

On the universal Spread of the Gospel; a Sermon, delivered January 4th, the first Sabbath in the Nineteenth Century of the Christian Era. By Nathan Strong, Pastor of the North Presbyterian Church in Hartford, Connecticut. 8vo. pp. 46. Hartford. Hudson and Goodwin. 1801.

THE second Psalm is made the text to this sermon; in which the Preacher professes to make "some remarks on the past, the present, and future state of the Christian Church." These are excellent subjects, but not exclusively appropriate to the occasion of the present discourse. After an introduction, which most readers will think too long, the following division of the subject is made: (p. 11). 1. "Sundry divine promises, that, in due time, the gospel, and the Christian church shall fill the world, to the exclusion of heathen ignorance, and of all false religion." 2. "To describe, as may be collected from the sacred prophecies, and the fulfilment of them recorded in history, what appears to have been the scheme of counsel in this matter; what progress the gospel should make; the hindrances which should arise; and how, and when, the promise should be gloriously fulfilled." 3. "A view of the present state of the world, and of the nations, with respect to Christianity, by which we may see an amazing preparation for the fulfilment of the gracious and glorious promise." On the first view of this plan, it is obvious, that Mr. S. must necessarily extend his observations from the earliest periods of the church to its millennial state. In doing this, he evinces considerable historical learning, and much attention to prophetic studies. To his comments and illustrations on different predictions, many, no doubt, will be disposed to subscribe. "All liberty," says Mr. S. (p. 28) "civil and religious, was abrogated" by the usurping Popes. This is not strictly correct. Worthless as those Pontiffs were, the crime of destroying civil liberty can only be partially charged upon them. Civil liberty, in the sense in which it is usually accepted, was, in a great measure, unknown in Europe at that point of time, and, therefore, could not have been abrogated by ecclesiastical domination. That corrupt churchmen drew more closely the bonds with

which ignorance and wickedness had previously fettered the world is true; and this perversion of their influence was among the greatest of their crimes.

There are many marks in this sermon of a good understanding, a sound judgment, and a pious heart, but few of a correct or refined taste. To the *graces* of eloquence Mr. S. does not seem ambitious of aspiring. He has evidently a higher and nobler object in view. But we could still wish, as we have taken occasion before to remark, concerning this very respectable writer, that he had paid more attention to what is, at least, a matter of secondary consideration. We are sorry to see so many instances of incorrect and negligent expression admitted into the pages of so valuable a discourse. We presume that, on a review, Mr. S. would discard such phrases as the following: "The power of godliness *was departed* from the church;" *capable of infinite perfectibility*; "awakens *up* our curiosity," &c. There seems to be some impropriety in introducing the phrase, "my readers (p. 41), into an address supposed to have been delivered from the pulpit. Committing a sermon to the press does not alter its nature.

The following is the manner in which Mr. S. speaks of the future spread of the gospel:—

"There is an amazing preparation to spread a doctrinal knowledge of the gospel through the world.

"We may learn this at once by looking on the character and state of the nations. The greatest difficulties in christianizing men are to gain access to them, and to plant the beginnings of gospel knowledge and doctrine. Let us survey the several quarters of the world. Christianity is known through the whole of Europe; and when the remains of Antichristian apostacy are consumed, which God is now doing, by instruments prepared to go any lengths that the most awful vindictive justice will permit, the religion of Christ will be left in its doctrinal purity. Through all the north of Asia Russian conquest and colonization is planting the principles of the Greek church; and through a large part of its southern shores and the great islands on its coast, are colonies from Christian nations. Through the vast Ottoman empire, which is situate in the heart of the old world, spreading into Europe, Asia and Africa, are innumerable Christians of the Greek communion. By oppression and poverty, for several ages, these Christians have been almost wholly unnoticed. When that empire, which is now benumbed with the lethargy of approaching death, comes to its end without being helped by any man, as it directly will,

a multitude of little collections of Christians will be found planted in every part of it, who will come into immediate union with their brethren in other lands. The science which fled from them before the Ottoman conquest, to enlighten the western and northern parts of Europe, and prepare the way for the Protestant reformation, after the Turkish power is dissolved, will return back to them with modern improvements, to wake them from the imbecility and superstition into which they have been sunk by a most severe despotism. Through the shores of Africa are colonies from Christian nations, a natural preparation of providence to communicate the gospel among the numerous tribes with which the interior of that great quarter of the world is populated. In all the eastern shores of America, from north to south, Christianity is planted; and that tide of men which is rolling westward with an unparalleled velocity of population, long before the present century is finished, will carry the gospel of Christ across to the Pacific ocean and the eastern shores of Asia. Enterprize, commerce and navigation are in the hands of those who, if they have any religion, are Christians. Science, which is favourable to Christianity, is diffusing every where. One prophetic description of this time is, "many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased." The pious, in all the Christian nations, in a manner unexampled before, have recently awoke to a sense of their obligation to transmit the gospel to their heathen fellow-creatures. Even the considerate part of the Jews are looking with wonder on the scene."

ARTICLE VIII.

Orlando, or Parental Persecution; a Tragedy, by William Charles White. Adapted for Theatrical Representation, as performed at the Theatre, Federal-street, Boston. J. Russel. Boston. 1797.

BY the author's dedication "to the fair sex," and his address "to the reader" we conclude, that he is very young, and are willing to admit the plea, "as an apology for the many inaccuracies of his "production." Mr. White also pleads, in excuse, that he was only six weeks in composing his play; but we are by no means inclined to excuse his faults because he

did not give himself time to correct them; and it is our duty to observe, that a mind fitted for dramatic composition by previous study, could not have fallen into such glaring absurdities as appear in this performance, though tasked to write a poem of equal length in six days.

The piece opens with a dialogue between Darnford, the father of Orlando, and Albert, who, through friendship to the young hero, endeavours to move the pity of the father for his weeping son, banished his presence and favour for having married "a hated wretch—of birth obscure, in lowness bred—unworthy his high rank." Albert very seriously asks the old gentleman if he can, "without compassion, count the numerous tears which daily sully the fair manly cheek of spirited Orlando?" when it appears that the old man had not seen his son, nor had the son shed any tears. He, to be sure, is married, and his wife accuses him, afterwards, of having changed the "genial tribute" of his "joyful smiles" "into frowns:" but that's a reproach so common among married folks that the reader takes no notice of it. The old man tells Albert that his "heart is fixed in lasting hate!" of his son. Albert is very justly provoked at *such* a declaration, and shortly after threatens to tear the father's grey hairs from his head. After Darnford has left the stage Orlando enters, and finding his friend cursing his father, asks—

"What wonderous cause so stupifies *your* mind?
Unusual pensiveness sits on *thy* brow!
If *you're* afflicted, tell me."

Albert answers—

"'Tis you, my friend, who *shares* th' *immense proportion*
Of all *that now* employs my *serious* thoughts."

In the dialogue which follows between the friends, Albert urges Orlando to go home to his wife—

"Permit her not to mourn thus solitary,
Hidden from every comfort that supports her."

Orlando answers him with sighs and tears: Cecilia appears, and Albert leaves them together. The young husband continues to talk of sighs and tears, and anxiety and misery, the cause of which is never once mentioned; the reader only knows that he has married the woman he loves, and has thereby displeased his father. Cecilia endeavours to cheer him, and proposes to sing—"Come let us sing." They finally agree to go

—"Then let's begone." Where? The scene then changes to Darnford's house, who, enraged at Albert's reproaches, resolves to destroy both him and Orlando. Lysander, a second son, is introduced, who is schooled by his father to let "Cruelty, with her horrid group, *domain* his heart," and to ruin Albert and Orlando.

Act 2d. discovers Albert in conference with Somerville, an old servant of Darnford's, who, having overheard the plot of Darnford and Lysander, gives information of it to Albert, and urges him to tell Orlando: but Albert, instead of taking this good advice, says—

"Come, follow me, my Somerville.
We'll seek some place recluse, where yonder cluster
Of towering trees compose a silent grove;
And there we'll talk upon all monster fathers," &c.

And they go out together for this wise purpose. In the next scene Lysander persuades his silly brother (silly *so* to be persuaded) that Albert is a false friend and a villain; in consequence of which, in the next act, they have a quarrel; they fight—Orlando is disarmed, and goes off in a rage.—In the 4th act Lysander, having enticed Cecilia to meet him in the "back garden," where she expects to see her husband's father, he makes a rude attempt upon her gentle virtue; but the faithful Albert interposes, saves her, and kills the villain. For this action he is imprisoned and condemned as a murderer, without one effort on the part of Cecilia or Orlando to save him, though the latter is convinced of Albert's innocence, and the former could testify Lysander's baseness. But the author wanted to kill him.—Albert having told Cecilia that he would pretend to be "affronted" with her husband, refuses, in the 5th act, to see him; upon which, what does the silly Orlando?—buys poison, and swallows it. This kills Orlando. The gentle Cecilia then *goes mad*, and the piece concludes with an exhortation against *suspicion, jealousy, and parental undutifulness*.

We lament that we can find nothing in this tragedy to commend. The dialogue never rises above mediocrity, and is generally very faulty. Of the plot the reader may judge by our analysis. The piece is accompanied by a pretty good Prologue, written by Mr. Paine, and a very poor Epilogue, by "J. B. Williamson, director of the Boston Theatre."

ARTICLE IX.

A Review of the Improvements, Progress and State of Medicine in the eighteenth Century; read on the first day of the nineteenth Century before the Medical Society of South-Carolina, in pursuance of their vote, and published at their request. By David Ramsay, M. D. 8vo. pp. 47. Charleston. Young. 1801.

THE author of this pamphlet affords an instructive example of extent and versatility of talents, and of the efficacy of diligence and enterprize. At one time we behold him immersed in the toil and anxiety of an arduous profession; and, at another, assisting and presiding in the public councils of his country. Lately we found him recording the eventful story of our revolution, and of the infancy of our national independence; now he recurs to his stores of medical learning, and instructs us by a retrospection of the progress, improvements and state of medicine in the course of the eighteenth century. In all these departments of exertion he has obtained much commendation. The city in which he resides will gratefully attest the value of his services, as a physician, for a series of years; the United States, and particularly the State of South-Carolina, will long remember his patriotic labours; the suffrage of the public, both in Europe and America, combines to rank him among the best of our historians; and the pamphlet now under consideration will be found fully to maintain that distinction which the author has hitherto held among American writers.

In order to exhibit a clearer view of what has been done in the course of the eighteenth century, Dr. R. carries back his inquiries to the effects of the new mode of philosophising, by the method of induction, proposed by Lord Bacon. This recalled men's minds from the pursuits of speculation, and directed their attention to facts and experiments. Under the influence of this improvement Newton formed his system of the world, and Sydenham gained a deeper insight into the nature and treatment of diseases. To these preparatory steps in the seventeenth century, he adds the discovery of the circulation of the blood by Harvey, of the lacteals by Asellius, and of the thoracic duct by Pecquet.

Entering, at length, on that which properly belongs to the eighteenth century, Dr. R. holds up to view the great systematic writers who have chiefly succeeded in attracting distinction. Among these he ranks Boerhaave, Hoffman, Cullen, Brown and Darwin. Dr. R. omits to place in this groupe the name of Stahl, probably under the impression that his fanciful system is now too far exploded to deserve commemoration. But when we recollect the talents of that Professor, the popularity of his doctrines, the number and ardour of his followers, the prevalence of his system in Germany, and the tincture which his principles still give to modern opinions, the propriety of the omission may, perhaps, deserve to be questioned. In the list of the systematic writers of the eighteenth century we find likewise our eminent countryman Professor Rush.

Dr. R. next proceeds more particularly to enumerate the principal discoveries and improvements of the eighteenth century in anatomy, surgery, midwifery, materia medica, and the theory and practice of physic. Our limits do not permit us to exhibit even an outline of the variety of subjects mentioned under these heads. Full justice is also done to the period under review in respect of the multiplication of societies or associations of learned men for literary and scientific purposes, and especially for the improvement of medicine and the auxiliary branches of philosophy. Nor does our author forget to render homage to the charity and benevolence of the century just elapsed, manifested in the institution and endowment of hospitals and infirmaries, far beyond what had been known in former ages. And he adverts to the important consideration, that, in such establishments, charity to the sick and to the poor goes hand in hand with the improvement and diffusion of medical knowledge.

The progress of natural history, and especially of botany, in the eighteenth century, receives from Dr. R. a proper degree of attention. The manner in which medicine has been enriched from this source is known to every body. The laudable beginning of a collection towards an American *Materia Medica*, made by Professor Barton, of Philadelphia, is justly considered by our author, as, indeed, it must be by every judicious person, as an attempt of the highest importance, and in every respect entitled to the patronage of the public.

Dr. R. dwells with great pleasure on the progress and improvements of chemistry in the course of the late century. He chiefly considers it in its relations to the practice of physic. In this view of the subject he takes notice of the enlargement

of the *materia medica* which chemistry has procured, of the analysis of vegetable and animal substances and of the atmosphere, and of the prospect of advantage from pneumatic medicine.

As a specimen of Dr. R.'s mode of treating his subject, we extract the following paragraphs.

"In estimating the benefits that have resulted to mankind from the labours of physicians in the eighteenth century, we must extend our views far beyond the administration of medicine. In that enlightened period, the air we breathe, the aliment we consume, the clothes we wear, the passions and habits in which we indulge, the peculiarities incidental to our profession, age, and situation; and, in short, every circumstance connected with health or disease, has been the object of medical investigation. The great triumphs obtained over the small-pox and scurvy, have not been so much from medicine, as from the application of medical principles. Who can tell the extent of the benefits that have resulted from the pointed recommendation of medical men in favour of cleanliness? Attention to this matter, we are informed by Buchan, has nearly exterminated cutaneous diseases from all decent families in Britain. It has also extinguished the germ of infection, and often prevented the ravages of pestilence. The writings of this useful popular writer have, within the last forty years, been read by thousands, and enlightened them in the great art of preserving health.

"In addition to several improved systems of medicine, and to the treatises already mentioned on the diseases of seamen, and of armies, the physicians of the eighteenth century have obliged the world with valuable publications on the diseases of literary persons, of tradesmen, of pregnant and puerperal women, of children, on fevers of almost every species, on the plague, on melancholy and mental derangement, on the follies of youth, and the infirmities of age. They have treated largely of aliment, and minutely of the medical police of cities, and on the means of obviating infection and contagion. They have lighted up a blaze of medical knowledge, by which a few diseases have been nearly consumed; some destroyed in their embryo state; others entirely prevented; and all, more or less, mitigated. They have also seconded and enforced the claims of our holy religion; for they have demonstrated, from acknowledged laws of the animal economy, that the cheerful hopes which the doctrines of the Christian religion inspire, and the restraints which it imposes (particularly its divine pre-

cepts enjoining the forgiveness of injuries) have a direct and positive influence in promoting the health of the body, as well as the purity of the mind. On the whole, medical philosophy, in its late wide ranges, has effected a revolution in the habits of men, and in the nature and treatment of their diseases, which has eminently conduced to the lessening of human misery.

“ In support of this assertion, I observe, that the plague, pestilential fevers, putrid scurvies and dysenteries, have much abated in the eighteenth century. This is true, in the great scale of enlightened nations, though the general prevalence of the yellow fever, in the sea ports of the United States, for the last seven years, seems to form a local exception. Platerus, a physician at Basil, who lived in the seventeenth century, gives an account of seven different pestilential fevers, or plagues, which afflicted that city within seventy years. Bartholine mentions five that raged in Denmark in the same period. In the city of London, in the fourteenth century, there were five; in the fifteenth, two; in the sixteenth, seven; and in the seventeenth, there were four. The first of these began in 1603, and continued, more or less every year, till 1611; the second in 1625; the third in 1636, and continued for thirteen years; and the fourth in 1665. In these four visitations of the plague, in the seventeenth century, the city of London lost 133,985 persons. In York, 11,000 died of an epidemic fever in 1691. In the eighteenth century, nothing of the kind has taken place in any part of England, and only one (and that 80 years ago) in Marseilles, which, in former centuries, used to be head-quarters of the plague.

“ That this abatement of the plague has, at least, in part, been effected by the smiles of providence on the modern improvements, suggested by members of our profession, may be inferred from this circumstance—that Constantinople, Aleppo, Grand Cairo, and other places, on which the sun of medical philosophy has never shone, do now, and throughout the eighteenth century, have suffered as much from the ravages of this disease as they had ever done before.

“ From a review of all that has been said, we have reason to congratulate ourselves, that we were born in this enlightened period—the age of investigation, of philosophy, and of medicine.

“ While we bid adieu to the eighteenth century, we cannot but recollect its many triumphs. In it the human race have been more safely ushered into life, and in their passage through it, many of their unavoidable sufferings have been consider-

ably lessened. In it every branch of medical knowledge has been carried to an amazing extent. Every department of the healing art has been improved. The chances for health and life have been enlarged. The avenues to death have been contracted. The deaf have been taught to understand—the dumb to converse, the blind to see, and the apparently dead have been raised to life. We may reasonably indulge an honest pride for having been bred to so useful a profession, and for being members of so respectable a fraternity. Among the practitioners of medicine, in the eighteenth century, are to be numbered, several of the greatest, wisest, and best of men, who have been the ornaments of human nature, and the benefactors of mankind. In support of this assertion I need only call your attention to the names of Boerhaave, Ruysch, Haller, Monro, Cheselden, Hoffman, Heister, Mead, Petit, Sloane, Morgagni, Pringle, Cullen, Gregory, Hunter, Fothergill, Tronchin, Pott, Warren, and many others, who were the lights of the world, and men of the most extensive erudition, and unbounded philanthropy; who spent their lives in acquiring and diffusing a knowledge of the means of prolonging life, preserving health, and lessening human misery.

“In our own State, what ancient inhabitant of Carolina who has not heard the names of Lining, Moultrie, Chalmers, and Garden, mentioned with the greatest respect, as gentlemen and physicians of the first character, for usefulness and respectability. Since the establishment of our society we have been witnesses of the great professional merit, and the high place in the hearts of our citizens, which was held by Turnbull and Fayssoux; and of the high expectations which were formed from the youthful merit of Bartram and Lehrs.”

We are pleased to observe the respect and justice which Dr. R. thus renders to the eminent medical characters of South-Carolina. Every citizen of that State must exult in recollecting how signally it has been distinguished by a number of Physicians, whose services will long be remembered with gratitude, and whose abilities will be revered by posterity. We hope such examples will be contemplated with veneration in every part of America, and that other States of the Union, in which medical science, from whatever cause, may have been less successfully cultivated, will become emulous of the reputation and fame of South-Carolina.

ARTICLE X.

Washington's Political Legacies; to which is annexed an Appendix, containing an Account of his Illness, Death, and the National Tribute of Respect paid to his Memory; with a Biographical Sketch of his Life and Character; his Will, and Dr. Tappan's Discourse before the University of Cambridge. 12mo. pp. 292. New-York. Forman. 1800.

Washington's Monuments of Patriotism: being a Collection of the most interesting Documents connected with the Military Command and Civil Administration of the American Hero and Patriot: to which is annexed an Eulogium on the Character of General Washington, by Major William Jackson. 8vo. pp. 338. Philadelphia. F. & R. Bailey. 1800.

THERE is little reason to apprehend that any literary composition of the illustrious Washington will fall into oblivion through the disregard or neglect of his cotemporary countrymen. As time and casualty, however, are perpetually assailing the permanence of human productions, every individual of the present generation deserves well of posterity, who places beyond the reach of local and accidental loss any paper or document that may contribute to the perpetuity of the fame, or enable distant ages justly to appreciate the character of our immortal patriot.

The volume first mentioned comprehends thirty articles, nine of which are from the pen of Washington: of these his "Valedictory Address to his fellow-citizens," and his "Will," are eminently valuable and interesting.

The other book contains about seventy-six articles, which consist principally of communications in the way of messages, answers, and replies between him and Congress, during his Presidency.

To expatiate on the practical wisdom, the sound precepts, the enlightened observations, the patriotic sentiments, and luminous expressions that are every where conspicuous in the productions of this great and good man, would be a needless, though to us a pleasing task; since there is not one of his countrymen to whom they are unknown, or who has not perused his writings with the liveliest emotions of gratitude and admiration.

ARTICLE XI.

A Manual of Parliamentary Practice, for the Use of the Senate of the United States. By Thomas Jefferson. 18mo. pp. 196. Washington. S. H. Smith. 1801.

THOSE who have any acquaintance with the general modes of conducting business in deliberative assemblies, will readily perceive the great utility of the present work. The Constitution of the United States, after incorporating, as it were, each branch of the legislature under its particular president or speaker, authorizes them to determine the rules of their own proceedings. The Senate have accordingly framed a system of internal government for their own members; but as unusual cases may occur, and interpretations of these rules frequently become necessary, they have agreed to refer all new questions of order to the decision of their President, without debate and without appeal.

From this circumstance the discretion of the President will often be called into exercise: to obviate, therefore, the influence of caprice and partiality, this discretion must be under some discipline, and be guided by some scheme of regulation already established by the experience of antecedent legislatures. As the Parliament of England is the model from which we have copied our forms of legislation, no better standard can be resorted to for direction in all cases connected with those forms. To investigate, ascertain, and connect these parliamentary rules, and to digest them in such manner that they may be easily introduced into the economy of the legislative family, has been the purpose of the learned and respectable compiler of the present volume: and while the acquiescence of our Senate sanctions a reference to these foreign precedents, his book will be regarded as a source of important and useful information.

The work is divided into sections, which comprehend the leading authorities respecting a variety of points in legislative proceeding; such as the conduct of the members in the course of debate, the management and disposal of a bill in every stage of its progress, the appointment of committees, the etiquette of addresses, the ratification of treaties, the impeachment of members, and, in short, relative to almost every subject of senatorial concern; together with the precepts of the constitution, and the written rules of the Senate.

The collection of these numerous precedents appears to be the result of industrious and discriminating research: they are concisely deduced, and arranged in a perspicuous manner.—Upon the whole, we consider this code of rules as well calculated to promote, in our Senate, “accuracy in business, economy of time, order, uniformity, and impartiality.”

ARTICLE XII.

The Powers of Genius, a Poem, in three Parts. By John Blair Linn, A. M. Co-pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in the City of Philadelphia. Foolscape 8vo. pp. 127. Philadelphia. Dickins. 1801.

THE subject of this Poem may be regarded as new; for we do not recollect any other dedicated to the analysis and illustration of that power which is the source of all poetry. Some works in prose have been written on the same topic; but the great performance of AKENSIDE appears to be the only poetical work to which the present bears any affinity.—In describing the “Pleasures of Imagination,” and investigating their origin and causes, the poet was naturally led to speak of “the Powers of Imagination,” which open to the mind of man the sources of the most exquisite and sublime pleasures of which his nature is susceptible.—AKENSIDE did not live to finish his poem agreeably to its original design; but even in the imperfect state in which it now appears, it is the most beautiful philosophical poem in our language. His great learning, his taste, formed from the best models of antiquity, the noble principles of morality and philosophy, imbibed from the study of the soundest and most correct writers, added to his own vigorous and original powers, peculiarly fitted him for the execution of such a work. And it is certainly a proof of happy genius and uncommon acquisitions, to have produced such a poem at an age* when few are able to determine,

— *quid ferre recusent,*
Quid valeant humeri,

and when most are trying their forces in a thousand fruitless attempts, or wasting them in the dangerous repose of mental and moral inactivity. But it is not the “Pleasures of Ima-

* Akenside published his poem at the age of 23. Mr. Linn is not much older.

gination" that we are called upon to examine; the world has already decided, justly perhaps, though not unanimously, on the merits and defects of its author.

The reader will perceive, at first sight, the extent and arduousness of the theme which Mr. LINN has chosen for the exercise of his talents; the difficulty of applying the test of logic to a subject so abstruse, and of an essence airy and volatile; and of introducing into verse the results of the decomposing process. Genius, fancy, invention, judgment, sympathy, are hues of a rainbow, the compound and general effect of which is sufficiently obvious and striking, but the nice discriminations and relations between them are too apt to elude the most exact and deliberate scrutiny.

That the reader may judge of the success of our poet, and of the force and extent of his philosophical powers, we shall exhibit a brief analysis of his poem.

Invention is the criterion or characteristic of Genius. *Fancy*, the mother of the Passions, is the ally of Genius, and inspires *Invention* with that force, in the use or direction of which she is regulated by *Judgment* and *Sympathy*. Genius frequently moves with vigour, though unguided by *Taste*. The latter, whose province it is to regulate and controul, is brightened by reflection from Genius. The former is possessed by many; the latter is the boast of few. Sensibility to natural and moral beauty, to the charms of poetry and music, is often found among uncultivated minds; and in such, therefore, *Taste* undisciplined and unimproved is seen to reside. The utmost discipline and regularity are requisite to the perfection of *Taste*; but Genius, though unlimitedly improveable by culture, appears with great exuberance and majesty in fields where culture has not been known.

Genius is able to assume many different strains; the lofty or the humble; the soothing or terrific. Its objects, also, are various, and it displays itself, according to the ruling impulse, in poetry, music, painting, or sculpture. Eloquence and Science are likewise represented as paths in which the footsteps of the votary are directed by Genius.

Such appear to be the outlines of the first and second parts of this poem. The third part exhibits animated pictures of the wonder-working power of Genius; a tale of the influence of love on an ingenuous mind; and a slight sketch of the progress of Genius through different periods and in different nations.

These various propositions and distinctions are illustrated by similes and examples. The inborn force and uncontrollable

energy of Genius is exemplified by HOMER, SHAKSPEARE, OSSIAN, ARIOSTO, and BURNS. The influence of education on Genius is exhibited by BEATTIE's *Edwin*. The different forms of Genius are shown in the predominant spirit of VIRGIL, PETRARCH, GRAY, and COWPER; of ROSSEAU, RICHARDSON, FIELDING, BURNEY, and RADCLIFFE.

The merit of didactic poetry must not be expected to consist in forming or establishing new theories and new distinctions. Its principal purpose appears to be that of illustrating by suitable allusions and examples, and adorning by glowing images and melodious numbers, the distinctions most generally admitted. In this view will the candid reader open the present performance.

Unfettered by the strict rules which limit the other departments of poetry, with a boundless field for observation, argument, illustration and example before him, the didactic poet may exhaust all his stores, all the charms of description, of imagery and language, to enrich his composition, and to elucidate and enforce his precepts. In the selection and management of materials, so abundant in every region of philosophical inquiry into the operations of nature or the human mind, will be seen the judgment and skill of the preceptive poet. And though few have attempted any great work in this path, yet, as combining the great ends of all writing, pleasure and instruction, it may be regarded, perhaps, as the most useful and dignified species of poetry. It cannot be denied, however, that it is that in which it is the most difficult to attain lasting reputation and success. Considerations of this sort have not deterred our poet from the attempt. Supported by the worth and elevation of his motives, he will feel satisfied, whatever may be the fate of his poem, that "it was written with an honest intention, during those moments of leisure in which the author could withdraw from the severer studies of his profession;" and that, "if literature and morals are not benefitted by this effort, it will not be disgraceful to have failed in the design to promote them."

Adopting the popular distinctions on his subject, Mr. L. has contented himself with illustrating them by obvious but apt examples, without any elaborate display of philosophic lore, or metaphysical refinement. The manner in which his examples are introduced is generally forcible and striking; the portraits which are drawn of different authors are lively and pleasing; the amorous destiny of Orlando is well depicted; the descant on the pleasures of Genius will find a responsive chord

in every ingenuous breast; and the history of Genius is deduced with brevity and perspicuity, though without originality or novelty.

The poetical qualities of this poem will best appear by extracts. The following will serve as a specimen of the poet's descriptive talents.

"Hark! from the heath I hear some footstep dread,
Which beats the earth with hollow sounding tread;
Hark! from the tomb a voice of terror breaks,
The air breathes cold, the ground beneath me shakes;
A ghost appears, the moon withdraws her beams,
And all the thickets sound with frightful screams;
The critic's voice is now as hush'd as death,
His eyes are fix'd, we scarcely hear his breath;
Great Shakspeare now commands the midnight hour,
And o'er the soul extends his dreadful power.
When in the tempest rais'd by Prosper's hand
He waves o'er Nature his commanding wand;
When on the field of Bosworth Richard lay,
And horrors shuddered at approaching day,
The ghosts of York hung o'er his trembling bed,
And breath'd their vengeance on their murderer's head;
When Ariel sings and moves amid the air;
When Banquo rises to the vacant chair;
When Hamlet's ghost, the bell then beating one,
Stalks pale and sullen by his warlike son:
Then gloom and terror throw their mantle round,
And every power lies still in awe profound."

That judgment may be thought cold, which is not warmed by the following passage, in which two of the love-inspired poets are characterized.

"Though Genius mostly loves some daring theme,
Yet she can warble with the tinkling stream;
Though her bold hand strikes the hoarse thundering strings,
Yet not the nightingale more sweetly sings.
Hush! every sound—let not a zephyr move;
O let me listen to those notes of love!
For tender Virgil breathes his softest strain,
And Amaryllis fills the shady plain:
His voice of music lulls the stilly scene,
And not a whisper flits across the green.
In transport toss'd, I tread some fairy shade,
And hear the accents of my peerless maid!
Her silent footsteps through the glade I trace,
And seem to clasp her in my fond embrace:
Around me flows the breath of every flower,
And wildest music breaks from every bower."

"Thou murmuring breeze! O bear upon thy wing
That strain, which flows from Petrarch's mournful string.
O speak those charms which Petrarch's Laura wears!
O breathe that passion which he mourn'd in tears!

Thou stream of Time! bear in thy course along
The early lustre of Italian song;
To lone Vacluse let all the loves repair,
And tell their sorrows to her listening air;
There oft, when Cynthia threw her midnight beam
Along the banks, and o'er the silver stream,
Unhappy Petrarch wandered through the vale,
Wept with the dews, and murmur'd with the gale!"

The *horrific* writers of the present age will recognize their likeness in the following portrait of their great leader and model Mrs. RADCLIFFE:

"While Nature howls, and Mirth's gay whispers die,
Her eye on fire—her soul in ecstasy!
See bolder Radcliffe take her boundless flight,
Cloth'd in the robes of Terror and of Night!
O'er wilds, o'er mountains, her high course extends,
Through darken'd woods, and through banditti's dens!
At length she lights within some ruin'd tower,
While, from the turret, tolls the midnight hour!
A thousand phantoms follow at her call,
And groans ascend along the mouldering wall!
Dim shadows flutter o'er the sleeping vale,
And ghostly music comes upon the gale!
A light appears—some hollow voice is near—
Chill terror starts—and every pulse is fear!"

The pleasures of Genius are thus described:

"What vast delights flow on that glowing breast,
By Virtue strengthen'd and by Genius blest!
Whate'er in Nature beautiful or grand,
In air, or ocean, or the teeming land,
Meets its full view, excites a joy unknown,
To those whom Genius *dasbes from her throne*.
Genius finds speech in trees; the running brook
To her speaks language, like a favourite book;
She dresses Nature in her brightest form,
She hears with rapture the descending storm,
She lists the chiming of the falling stream,
Which lulls to sleep and wakes the airy dream;
Enwrapt with solitude she loves to tread
O'er rugged hills, or where the green-woods spread,
To hear the songsters of the lonely grove
Breathe their sweet strains of gladness and of love:
She loves to wander when the moon's soft ray
Treads on the footsteps of departing day,
When heavy sadness hangs upon the gale,
And twilight deepens o'er the dusky vale,—
By haunted waters, or some ruin'd tower,
Which stands the shock of Time's destroying power,
Where the dim owl directs his dusky flight,
And pours his sorrows on the ear of Night.
The song of bards and Wisdom's ancient page,
Which brave the blasts of each succeeding age,

With fond delight she studies and admires,
 And glows and kindles at their sacred fires;
 She treads on air, she rises on the wind,
 And with them leaves the lagging world behind.
 When solitude o'erhangs the tardy hour,
 She finds within herself a social power.
 On life's sad journey she is doom'd to bear
 The sweetest pleasure and the keenest care.
 If she be subject to severer woe
 Than cold phlegmatic souls can ever know,
 She knows those joys which soar above their sight,
 As rolls the planet in the worlds of light."

The general merit of this performance will be sufficiently seen in the preceding remarks, and from the extracts we have given; but since volumes of American poetry are so rare, we may be allowed to extend our observations further. Indiscriminate praise or blame is neither just or useful.

A careful scrutiny would discover many defective lines in this poem. The numbers might, in several instances, be rendered more musical, the epithets more precise, and the transitions more easy and coherent. Errors, the growth, probably, of inadvertence or negligence, may, with suitable attention, be corrected in a second edition, which we understand is shortly to appear. To particularise every line to which the hand of correction might be beneficially applied, would be considered as too rigid, and, where the general merit of the poem is considerable, invidious. We recommend, however, a few passages to the reconsideration of Mr. L.

P. 14. "Exhausts this world, *with Shakspeare sighs for more.*"

The dramatist who

"Exhausted worlds, *and then imagined new,*"

needed not, like an Alexander, to sigh for more.

P. 19. "No bands can hold her when she upward springs,
No storm can stay the thunder of her wings."

Indeed, the first forty lines are less poetical, correct, and pleasing than the rest of the poem.

In page 30, young EDWIN, from the Minstrel of BEATTIE, is introduced to exemplify the doctrine, that education is necessary to give Genius its full power and usefulness. As in the preceding and subsequent parts, the author, with great propriety and effect, has illustrated the various qualities and characteristics of Genius by writers who have been celebrated for their talents; so, in the present instance, instead of an *ideal* character, the offspring of a Poet's fancy, some real being, some genius, living or dead, should, in like manner, have been cited, to

sanction the truth of the proposition here intended to be enforced.

The transition (p. 51) from the contemplation of the great BACON, and NEWTON, to the loves of *Cimon* and *Iphigenia*, appears too abrupt. In a didactic poem, when the subject itself does not furnish the laws of unity and coherence, much ingenuity and skill may be exercised in the arrangement, adaptation, and connexion of the several parts.

The instance of an unfortunate and desperate lover (p. 51) is designed to illustrate the opinion, that "love is an exciting cause of Genius." Those feelings which render their possessor prone to love and melancholy are, doubtless, often allied with genius, as they are refined and sharpened by fancy. But the tale of ORLANDO, however interesting in itself, discovers only the usual operations of disappointed passion, and does not exemplify the position, that

"Love often wakes the poet's soul of fire,
And bids bold youth to noble deeds aspire;"

Nor is it sufficiently connected with the main subject. Why make the *Firth* of Scotland the scene of this episode? Are there no love-lorn swains on the banks of the *Schuylkill*, or the *Lehi*? and do not the *Hudson* and *Delaware* afford scenes equally suitable for the American poet?

When native objects which are present to the eye are neglected, it may be imagined that the writer has looked at nature "through the spectacles of books."

The indications of infant genius are thus described by Mr. L.

"The poet often gains a madman's name,
When first he kindles with the muse's flame,
When wild and starting he appears in pain,
And shews a moon-struck phrenzy of the brain;
The world cries out, "What ails our neighbour's lad?
'Tis pity of the boy, for he is mad;"
He "often laughs aloud, and none know why,"
And looks so strange and wildly from his eye;
'Tis said, he wanders at the dead of night,
And like a ghost, avoids the glare of light;
'Tis said, he babbles to the Moon's full-beam,
And sits, in silence, by the falling stream."

The Minstrel of BEATTIE presents a similar portrait.

"And yet poor Edwin was no vulgar boy;
Deep thought oft seem'd to fix his infant eye.
Dainties he heeded not, nor gaude, nor toy,
Save one short pipe of rudest minstrelsy.
Silent when glad; affectionate, though shy;
And now his look was most demurely sad,
And now he laugh'd aloud, yet none knew why.
The neighbours star'd and sigh'd, yet bless'd the lad:
Some deem'd him wond'rous wise, and some believ'd him mad."

It will be perceived that many objects of dignity and importance, on which Genius is exercised, have been either unnoticed, or but slightly mentioned by our poet. Some of the persons who are mentioned as examples of Genius, may be thought to occupy a space disproportionate to their merit, and to the exclusion of more deserving authors. The present performance is, in truth, no more than an imperfect outline of a subject the most extensive and sublime in the whole circle of didactic and descriptive poetry. It may be regarded, as the author seems to have intended it, as a brief *essay*, rather than a complete work; as a miniature-sketch, by the hand of taste, not as a finished portrait.* As such it may deserve the candid and liberal encouragement which it appears to have received from the public. The rapid sale of the first edition, while it is a pleasing proof of the growing attention of our countrymen to native genius, is a flattering testimony of merit to the author.

The *Appendix* contains some apposite examples of Genius, extracted from various authors, which will be read with pleasure for their own sake. Though we do not approve the modern fashion of filling the pages of poetry with annotations, yet most of those of Mr. L. discover good sense, taste, and general reading.

The supplementary poems in this volume are a *Midnight Hymn to Deity*—an *Address to my Taper*—the *farewell Song of Ossian*—*Mad Mary*—and an *Epistle to a Friend*. We were most pleased with the first; it breathes a strain solemn, dignified and devout. The following lines may be considered as a favourable specimen of poetical description:

“ By Adam's disobedience earth was curs'd.
In Nature's garden thorns and thistles grew:
Chill o'er the vallies swept the howling blast,
The thunders roar'd—the earthquake shook the globe;
The mountains pour'd their streams of liquid fire,
And, like a Giant, fell Disease arose
And blew o'er earth his pestilential breath.
A train of evils followed on his steps;
There came Misfortune, with his iron scythe
Dropping with human blood; there Envy stalk'd
And fan'd the flames of hell—fell Fury there
Yell'd to the winds and stamp'd the hollow ground,
Telling her sorrows to the listening Night:
There came wan Melancholy slowly on;
Folded her arms upon her heaving bosom,
Her face directed to the dewy moon.
There came Remorse absorb'd in gloomy thought:
There rush'd Despair—his dark eye roll'd in blood;
He tore the mantle from his raging breast,

* The poem consists of five hundred and fifty-four lines.

And plung'd his dagger in his heart—There came—
 Poor Lunacy in tatter'd robes, and wav'd
 A straw, and told the kingdoms which he rul'd.
 Lastly came Death cloth'd in his night of terrors,
 And clasp'd his victims in his shivering arms."

Mad Mary possesses the least merit; the theme is an hackneyed one. *The Address to my Taper* is correct and pleasing; Ossian is skilfully versified; and the "Epistle," though easy and familiar, is dignified and chaste. There are lines in each of them which deserve to be commended; few are to be found which sink beneath that degree of temperate elevation which, though genius will often soar above, good taste will never fall below.

ARTICLE XIII.

A Selection of the Patriotic Addresses to the President of the United States, together with the President's Answers, presented in the Year 1798. 8vo. pp. 360. Boston. Folsom. 1798.

THE circumstances which gave rise to the addresses and answers comprised in this collection, form an important period in the history of the United States. The conduct of the French rulers towards this country is known to all the world. The indignities cast by them on our government, and the undue influence over the people, which they presumptuously endeavoured to acquire, roused the resentment of every friend to the honour and safety of our rising empire. To counteract these designs, it became expedient for our government to act with vigilance and energy; and good citizens were eager to encourage the administration, by manifesting their acquiescence in the measures that were pursued, and by tendering their services to the supreme magistrate, in support of every mode of opposition to the domineering policy of France.

Such was the object, and such is the tenor of the numerous addresses contained in this volume. They appeared in the public prints at the time of their communication, and for this reason will not, perhaps, excite much immediate attention. At some distant period, however, they may attract the notice of our successors, and be perused with curiosity and interest. They will exhibit a glowing picture of the spirit of the times,

and may kindle ardour in the hearts of future generations. On some similar emergency, Eloquence and Patriotism may resort to this volume for animating examples of zealous attachment to the honour and welfare of our country.

ARTICLE XIV.

A selected, pronouncing and accented Dictionary, comprising a Selection of the choicest Words found in the best English Authors, &c. &c. By John Elliott, Pastor of the Church in East-Guilford, and Samuel Johnson, jun. Author of the School Dictionary. 16mo. pp. 223. Suffield (Connecticut). Oliver D. and I. Cook. 1800.

“**F**EW subjects,” says Mr. WALKER, in the preface to his excellent dictionary, “have more employed the pens of every class of citizens, than the improvement of the English language. The greatest abilities in the nation have been exerted in cultivating and reforming it. While JOHNSON and LOWTH have been insensibly operating on the orthography and construction of our language, its pronunciation has not been neglected. The importance of a consistent and regular pronunciation was too obvious to be overlooked; and the want of this consistency and regularity induced several ingenious men to endeavour at a reformation; who, by exhibiting the anomalies of pronunciation, and pointing out its analogies, have reclaimed some words that were not irrecoverably fixed in a wrong sound, and prevented others from being perverted by ignorance or caprice.”

“Among those writers who deserve the first praise on this subject is Mr. ELPHINSTON. After him Dr. KENRICK contributed a portion of improvement by his Rhetorical Dictionary, in which the words are divided into syllables as they are pronounced, and figures placed over the vowels to indicate their different sounds. To him succeeded Mr. SHERIDAN, who not only divided the words into syllables, and placed figures over the vowels, as Dr. KENRICK had done, but, by spelling these syllables as they are pronounced, seemed to complete the idea of a pronouncing dictionary, and to leave but little expectation of future improvement. It must, indeed, be confessed, that Mr. Sheridan's dictionary is greatly superior to every other that preceded it; and his method of conveying the sound of

words, by spelling them as they are pronounced, is highly rational and useful. But here sincerity obliges me to stop. The numerous instances I have given of impropriety, inconsistency, and want of acquaintance with the analogies of the language, sufficiently show how imperfect I think his dictionary is upon the whole. The last writer on the subject is Mr. NARES: but he seems, on many occasions, to have mistaken the best usage, and to have paid too little attention to the first principles of pronunciation."

Mr. WALKER then proceeds to speak of his own work. "It not only exhibits the principles of pronunciation on a more extensive plan than others have done—divides the words into syllables, and marks the sounds of the vowels, like Dr. KENRICK—spells the words as they are pronounced, like Mr. SHERIDAN—and directs the inspector to the rule by the word, like Mr. NARES; but where words are subject to different pronunciation, it shows the reasons, from analogy, for each; produces authorities for one side and the other, and points out the pronunciation which is preferable. In short, I have endeavoured to unite the science of Mr. ELPHINSTON, the method of Mr. NARES, and the general utility of Mr. SHERIDAN; and, to add to these advantages, have given critical observations on such words as are subject to a diversity of pronunciation."

We have availed ourselves thus largely of the well-written preface of Mr. WALKER, as it exhibits, in an intelligible manner, a history of the progress of English orthoepy. And it will serve to show how much labour and study *he* thought it necessary to bestow on a work of this nature. His dictionary is the production of a man of real science, and exhibits the deepest research, and the most perfect acquaintance with his subject. If it should be found that there are some words in it, and we are inclined to think that there are some, to the pronunciation of which the American ear cannot easily be reconciled, it is probable that it may not be long before we shall allow them here the same preference given them by polite speakers in England, and, in the mean time, the established usage of our country may be allowed to prevail. We do not hesitate, therefore, to recommend WALKER as the best standard for correct and elegant pronunciation.

Since the first edition of his work, two other pronouncing dictionaries have appeared in England—one by BROWN, called the *Union Dictionary*, and the other by JONES, both 12mo. besides an edition of the last in 8vo. After laboriously and minutely comparing these dictionaries with that of WALKER, we

cannot perceive the superiority of either of the former to the latter. They have borrowed almost entirely from him, without adding enough to justify, in our opinion, their publication.

Having mentioned these English dictionaries, we proceed to examine the claims of the compilers of the present work to public favour.

In the preface they appear to think there is much merit in being the first in this country in an undertaking of this kind. We cannot, however, suppose that it is conferring any great benefit on the public to tax it with the purchase of books which, at best, may be termed useless. That the work before us is superior, in any respect, to either of the many English pocket dictionaries now in print, we cannot, without discovering an unjustifiable partiality to our own countrymen, admit.

It is called a 'selected, *pronouncing* and accented Dictionary.' That it is 'selected and accented,' and, if the editors please, syllabical, we are not disposed to deny; but its claim to the title of a pronouncing dictionary rests on very slender pretensions. To render a pronouncing dictionary in any degree complete, it is indispensable not only that the different sounds of the vowels should be indicated by proper signs placed over them, but that the syllables of which the words are composed should, in a word annexed, be spelt in the manner they are to be pronounced. In both these particulars the dictionary under review is deficient. It is true that a sort of *key* is given, containing certain typographical characters to be placed over the vowels, so as to mark 'the sound of the vowel and of the accented syllable.' But how very imperfect this plan is, may readily be discovered in almost every page of the book; for instance, the vowel *a*, in the words *affray*, *agást*, *báth* and *báttery*, is marked with the same typographical character; and the like error prevails in numberless other instances. They allow but two sounds to any of the vowels, whereas the *a* has four, the *e* and the *i* two, the *o* four, and the *u* two; besides, there is the acute *Th* and the grave *Th*, and no pronouncing dictionary can be any way perfect which does not adopt every one of these distinctions.

The plan being thus faulty, we might rationally expect that the execution would be no less so; and the examination of any single page will show that such an expectation is not without foundation; though, as will be seen, there are imperfections which are not owing to this cause only. Let us take, for example, the first letter of the alphabet, and we

shall find many words in which the compilers have adopted an accent, or given a sound to the vowel, which is not warranted by the established usage of good speakers. We observe the word *ad-mi-ra-ble* with the accent placed on the second syllable, and the *i* marked long; *ag-ri-cúl-ture* with the accent on the third syllable; *á-nath-e-ma* with the accent on the first syllable; but this, we believe, is a typographical error; *án-cient* with the *a* marked short, as in *ánguish*, and the same fault in the words *ar-ránge*, *chám-ber*, *dán-ge-rous*, and many others; *an-ti-fê-brile* with the *e* long, instead of *an-ti-féb-rile*; *an-ti-pòdes* in three syllables, instead of *an-tip-o-dés*; *áp-a-ty* with the first *a* marked long; *áp-pre-hend* with the accent placed upon the first syllable instead of the last; *a-rè-a* with the accent on the second syllable instead of the first; *as-so-ci-à-tion*, where *c* ought to become aspirated, and the *ci* pronounced as if written *she*. "The same reasons which oblige us to pronounce *partiality*, *especially*, &c. as if written *par-sheality*, *espesheally*, &c. oblige us to pronounce *pronunciation* [association] as if written *promunsheation* [assosheation.]"

We shall detain the reader by another similar example, though not under the letter first selected. The words *beau-teous*, *courteous*, are written so as to be pronounced *bù-te-us*, *cúr-te-us*; but this is equally erroneous with the pronunciation of the former words. "The triphthong *eu*," says a learned orthoepist, "is never found but in an unaccented syllable, and generally a final one; and when it is immediately preceded by the dentals *d* or *t*, it melts them into the sound of *j* or *tch*. Thus *hideous*, *righteous*, *courteous*, *beauteous*, are pronounced as if written *hid-je-us*, *ri-tshus*, *kur-tshe-us*, *bu-tshe-us*." Our compilers have not been more fortunate in words containing the triphthong *iou*, every one of which is by them pronounced wrong: thus, *tedious*, *odious*, *insidious*, &c. are all made to preserve the *d* hard, instead of giving it the sound of *j*, as *te-je-us*, *o-je-us*, &c. But our disappointment in not finding the pronunciation in this dictionary very remarkable for its correctness and elegance will in some measure cease, when we observe the standard the compilers have chosen. "Our standard has been the practice of men of letters, and gentlemen of the first abilities and experience in school education in modern times."

Having already observed that we have a sufficient number of dictionaries of every 'suitable size,' it may be proper to examine the reasons which have induced the compilers to present the public with another. Their work ought to contain, at

least, some marks of superiority either in execution or design; a greater number of words, more correct definitions, or an improved pronunciation, formed on analogy and the best and most established usage. Unable to discern any of these, we turned to the preface, and to the recommendatory letters prefixed, to discover the motives assigned by the authors themselves or their friends. "To complete the circle of useful school-books," say they, "a dictionary of a suitable size seemed very requisite;" but as good dictionaries of all sizes are already to be had, this reason seems not very satisfactory. They proceed—"Serious objections lie against *those in common use*, arising from their price, but more especially from their *want of delicacy and chastity of language*. Many words there found are highly offensive to the *modest ear*, and cannot be read without a blush. To inspire youth with sentiments of modesty and delicacy is one of the principal objects of early instruction; and this object is totally defeated by the indiscriminate use of *vulgar* and indecent words."

How cheap these gentlemen can afford to sell their book we know not, but as it contains hardly one third of the number of words to be found in most of the pocket dictionaries already in print, we think some diminution of price may reasonably be expected. And as to the other observation, we take the liberty of remarking, that the compilers are not quite correct in point of fact, or else they have some kind of dictionaries in common use in Connecticut as yet to us unknown. Excepting the old dictionary of BAILEY, and the single one of ASH, we believe that we may venture to assert that there are none liable to this objection; and, if we are rightly informed, the late editions of BAILEY, by WOOD, are free from this fault. The dictionary by JOHNSON is pure from such words; and as every subsequent lexicographer, excepting ASH, has copied from him, the same omissions have been always observed. Our authors have certainly adopted this reason too hastily. They might, on the contrary, with much propriety, have joined the lady who complimented Dr. JOHNSON on the score of his delicacy in omitting all indecent words, had they first exerted the same degree of indefatigable and laudable industry as she did in hunting for them.

"A school dictionary, without either a rational division of syllables, or other rules designating the proper accents and sound of vowels, must appear at once extremely defective to all instructors." But as every dictionary now in print, which we have seen, contains the same, or a similar "division of syl-

lables; or other rules designating the proper accent and sound of vowels," we are at a loss to account for the insertion of this remark.

"Custom," they observe, "is daily introducing new words into our language, *many of which are frequently used*, and their signification important to be known. These we have attempted to collect, being influenced in our choice partly by the advice of others, and partly by our own judgment." As the size of this dictionary is not very formidable, curiosity has induced us to examine it through, to ascertain how many were the *new words* which have been collected by these laborious compilers, to give their book a superiority over the English publications. The sum total of words not to be found in any other dictionary which we have looked into, amounts to ten; *Chouan, Ci devant, Dè pot, Sans culotte, Hàu ter, In fluén za, Sà mi el, Tom a hazek, Wámpum, Composuist*. Of these ten words we may observe that the first four are pure French, and are to be found in any French dictionary, where only they should still be sought for: the fifth, which they call *French*, is not so, nor does it belong to any language; the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth, are very properly adopted, and only want correct explanations to make their insertion valuable; the tenth is nothing more than a *provincialism*; and as it conveys no new idea, nor supplies the place of any circumlocution, ought not to be legitimated by being introduced into any English dictionary. There is another word to which, at first, we thought these gentlemen had the exclusive right. We cannot soil our page with the transcription of it: it is to be found under the letter *F*, and is called *French*, but we were sure no *French* dictionary would admit a word so shockingly indecent and so vulgar. There is, indeed, a work in that language, called *Dictionnaire Comique*, in which this, among a curious collection of words and phrases, is inserted, with the following observation preceding the definition:—"Mot sale et indécent, qui n'est proféré d'ordinaire que par *des personnes mal elevees, par des brutaux, des polissons, des libertins et des gens sans mœurs*." Nor did we think it possible that it should find its way into any English dictionary; but turning to *ASH*, whose purpose it appears to have been to insert every word written or spoken in our language, we there found it. We hope, however, that neither the authority of the reverend pastor, or even of his learned colleague, will be sufficient to give it currency. Observing, from the definition of this word in *ASH*, which they have literally copied, that he does not understand

the meaning of the term, we sincerely hope that they may have the same apology; for ignorance would here afford them some excuse as men of decency and piety, though none as lexicographers.

We shall not detain the reader by numerous examples of defective or erroneous definitions. We collect the following specimens, as chance first presented them to the eye.

‘*Boom*. A spar across water to obstruct navigation.

‘*Jerk*. To give a quick smart blow.

‘*Misnomer*. Indictment under a wrong name.

‘*Quackery*. Mean or bad acts in physic.

‘*Incest*. A conjunction of parties prohibited.

‘*Cidevant*. Ancient, formerly possessed.

‘*Sans culotte*. A term in France for people without breeches.

‘*Shagreen*. To provoke, vex.’

This last word is absolutely confounded with *chagrin*, a totally distinct word. When it is spelt *shagreen* it means a kind of fish skin. ASH allows it the definition given it by our compilers, but he is careful to say it is a misspelling.—There are many errors of orthography, which we presume are typographical; but they ought to have been noticed as such, and should be corrected in that future edition which they propose, provided they should not think it such an improvement ‘as to injure the present edition.’

Not finding any very satisfactory reasons in the preface, for this publication, we turn to the recommendatory letters, which are prefixed as a kind of invitation hung out to the purchaser; and which appear to be *subscribed* by respectable names in the State of Connecticut. It is to be lamented that such recommendations are so frequently granted to the importunities of authors and editors. They often do more credit to the good nature than to the good sense and discretion of those who thus cheaply and inconsiderately lend their names, to give currency to a coin of which they have not ascertained the real value. We subjoin the ‘extract of a letter from the Hon. N. Bishop, Esq. one of the Justices of the Court of Common Pleas for the county of Berkshire, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.’

“The learner who takes in his hand a *full* dictionary, finds himself in a field too spacious for his views, and shrinks at the *undertaking*; but will be pleased with the prospect of *making himself master of one* so limited as this: and it appears to me your *omission* of words, the import of which is obvious to every one, and those which are seldom used, is a useful *improvement*, and, as far as I can judge, am satisfied that it con-

tains such a selection of words as will be applicable to the use of common schools." What the Judge means by *the undertaking* to make one self *master of a dictionary* we are at a loss to determine, unless it be committing it to memory, a kind of labour we never yet knew any one attempt; and what there is so very frightful to a learner in taking up a *full dictionary* which will afford him the word he is in search of, we are equally unable to comprehend. Had the *learned Judge* sought for reasons to support his recommendation, where "reasons were as plenty as blackberries," he could not probably have discovered a more singular one than this, that the value of the dictionary is in direct proportion to its smallness. His letter reminds us of a couplet of the Duke of Buckingham's, which may be thus parodied:

"The *work* is great, because it is so small;

"If it were greater 'twould be none at all."

Some apology might be necessary to our readers for bestowing so much attention on a book which may seem too diminutive, and of too little intrinsic merit, to be entitled to particular notice; but the insignificance of the vehicle which conveys and propagates error ought not to shield it from observation; and every publication, however small, which has a relation to the education of youth, and which may generate habits of thinking or speaking not easily to be changed, cannot be deemed indifferent to the public.

ARTICLE XV.

The Columbian Dictionary of the English Language, in which many new Words, peculiar to the United States, and many Words of general Use, not found in any other English Dictionary, are inserted: the Words are divided as they are pronounced, and each Word is accented according to the most approved Authors and Speakers, &c. To which is prefixed a Prosodial Grammar, containing a short Dissertation on Vowels and Consonants. To the whole is added Heathen Mythology, or a Classical pronouncing Dictionary. By Caleb Alexander, A. M. Author of Virgil's Works translated into literal English Prose, &c. &c. and Teacher of the English Language. 16mo. pp. 556. Boston. I. Thomas and E. T. Andrews. 1800.

SINCE the scientific labours of SHERIDAN and WALKER, particularly the latter, have rescued English orthoëpy from the

arbitrary dictates of pedantry and the fluctuations of caprice, a correct pronunciation seems almost to have become a criterion of good breeding and liberal education. There will be always, it is probable, some words of so ambiguous a pronunciation, that even among polite speakers a difference may prevail, and each must be left to the guidance of his own ear: but it is much to be doubted if any lexicographer will ever approach nearer than Mr. WALKER to the establishing a correct standard. He has exhibited such a philosophical knowledge of language, such extensive observation, such profound investigation of analogy, with such clearness of method and perspicuity of style, as to render any material improvement, at present, rather to be wished than expected.* If any new work on the subject of pronunciation could be useful in America, it would be one collecting and exposing the different *provincialisms* which prevail in some of the States, and correcting them by a common standard. This would require a nice ear, an acquaintance with orthoëpy, and a considerable share of industry; but it would be a useful undertaking, and would repay the labour of the author. There are New-England provincialisms which are instantly perceived by an inhabitant of New-York, and there are New-York provincialisms as equally and justly offensive to the ear of an inhabitant of New-England. History informs us that to such an extent was the study of the Greek language carried at ATHENS, and so perfectly was its beauty, energy and cadence understood by that ingenious and refined people, that "a simple herb-woman in the market distinguished THEOPHRASTUS to be a stranger from his pronunciation of a single word." But should a person enter our market, and ask for a *peyound* of venison, or the market at *Boston*, and inquire where their fish are *ta-kèn*,†

* The works of this very ingenious man seem not sufficiently known in this country. It was formerly in contemplation to introduce them into the common schools in this city, and it is to be regretted that they were not. His several treatises on prosody and on rhetoric are probably superior to any before written on those subjects. Besides his dictionary, he has published *Elements of Elocution*, two vols. 8vo. *Rhetorical Grammar*, one vol. 12mo. *Academical Speaker*, one vol. 12mo. *The Melody of Speaking delineated*, and *A Key to Classical Pronunciation*, two small vols. 8vo. His *Rhyming Dictionary* may be considered a valuable improvement on the labours of BYSCHE.

† The following sentence is an example of the anomalies of pronunciation which prevail in the city of New-York. "It *oft-tèn hap-pens*, that to fifty questions put to an inhabitant of New-England, you cannot obtain a direct or *dis-sis'siv* answer to any one of your *én-quer-res*."

nine out of ten of the market-women in either place would instantly discover a Theophrastus. The truth is, this anecdote has always passed for more than it is worth: such violent anomalies are always perceptible to the most vulgar ear; and the people of New-York, or Boston, or Philadelphia, are as much entitled to the above compliment as the inhabitants of *Athens*.

But to return to the immediate object of our review.—Some remarks, which a sense of duty to the public induced us to make in our notice of the preceding article, are applicable to the work before us. We have not been able to discover any such instances of improvement either in definition or pronunciation, or any such additional stock of valuable words as called for this publication. It may possibly contain "*many new words* peculiar to the United States, and *many words* of general use not found in any *other* English dictionary," but after due search we have been able to discover only the following, viz. *Lengthy*,* *Antifederalism*, *Bootees*, *Caucus*,

* The word *lengthy* has here, for the first time, the honour of being publicly adopted by the lexicographer. As this word has been frequently tried and condemned by several writers among us, as of base coinage, we may be excused if we examine the grounds of their verdict. It must be admitted, that if its definition is precisely that of *long*, as given by Mr. Alexander, it is at best but a useless synonyma, and ought, perhaps, to be expelled; but if it is intended to be used as a diminutive, and to mean *approaching to long*, it may possibly, though we do not mean to say it, be supported by fair analogy. But, at any rate, it seems to be entitled to a fairer trial than it has yet undergone. The first person who formally attacked its legitimacy gave as a reason that it was as ridiculous to say *lengthy* as it would be to say *breadthy* or *depthy*, and this has been repeated by every critic since who has sat in judgment upon it in our ephemeral prints: but ridicule is not the test of truth.

No objection will now be made, we hope, to the word *lengthen*, because it has long had established usage on its side; but according to the above rule of trying it by its peers, it must suffer the same fate with its kinsman *lengthy*, for we can no more say *breadthen*, *depthen*, than we can *breadthy*, *depthy*, and the same reasons which condemn the latter must condemn the former. One of these sagacious critics, in like manner, condemns the word *sunny* or *sunned*, because he says we do not use *moony* or *mooned*; but we do use *starry* and *starred*, and surely analogy will support as well as condemn: besides, it may be added, that *moony* is to be found in Jounson and all his transcribers, and both *moony* and *mooned* in Ash.

Another reason is given, that it is not to be found in any English dictionary, and this is always brought up as a charge against this and several other words, in a manner indicating an opinion that the objection is unanswerable. But the words *inimical*, *predilection*, *irrelevant*, and many others, have, within a few years, been introduced into England, and are now considered as legitimate words. But may we not ask, why have not American speakers or writers as much authority to coin words as they would have if they had lived in London, or belonged to the House of Commons? A celebrated Letter, published here last autumn, contained some words, used as verbs, which the English have hitherto only used as nouns, such as *advocate*,

Rateability, Sophomore, Lintar, Yanky, According to and Composuist. We suspect, however, that the authority of Mr. Alexander will hardly be sufficient to obtain a currency for the two last, or even for the first.

The definitions of Mr. A. which he considers as most *natural* because most *easy*, and most *simple* as being most *elegant*, appear, on the best examination our leisure would permit, to be transcribed from others, as others have transcribed from JOHNSON, "whose dictionary has been deemed lawful plunder by every subsequent lexicographer; and so servilely has it been copied, that such words as he must have omitted merely by mistake, as *Predilection, Respectable, Descriptive, Sulky, Inimical, Interference*, and many others, such as *Etiquette, Indian, Servant, Decorous, Legislate, Sley*, &c. are neither in Mr. SHERIDAN'S, Dr. KENRICK'S, nor several other dictionaries;" nor, we may add, in our *Columbian Dictionary*. When Mr. A ventures to proceed without his guide, we do not perceive that he derives any advantage from his temerity. Take, for example, his definition of the word *Sheet*, which he explains to mean, among other things, *a sail*. This is a gross and vulgar error. When the word *Sheet* is used as a sea-term, it means "*ropes bent to the clews of the sails*," but never the sails themselves. He adopts the word *likely* as an adjective, meaning *good, pleasing*, in which sense it has been long obsolete, and he omits it as an adverb, the only way in which, by good writers or speakers, it is now used.

As the professed design of this work is the "doing a little to fix an *uniform and permanent* standard of pronunciation," we have been more particular in our examination of this part of his plan; and we shall select such words as appear to us objectionable in this respect, and exhibit them, together with the same words corrected agreeably to WALKER, whom we have before mentioned as the best standard.

retrospect: but they were expressive of a circumlocution, and are agreeable to the ear; and why may they not be deemed of as high authority as if originating with Mr. Pitt or Mr. Erskine? We would not, however, be understood to countenance wanton innovations in our language, or as encouraging the inconsiderate coinage of words. To create language must be considered as the prerogative of those only who have acquired such an established reputation in the literary world as to stamp their opinions with something like the weight of authority. And even they must proceed in the exercise of their power with timid and cautious step, or they will find that the republic of letters will rebel. We should feel strongly inclined to fix the limits to cases of necessity, where a new idea is first engendered, or where precise expression is wanted for those nicer discriminations which are the result of elaborate scrutiny.

ALEXANDER.

WALKER.

Association, }
As-so-shā-sbun. }
Pronunciation, }
Pro-nun-shā-sbun. }

As-so-sbe-ā-sbun.

Pro-nun-sbe-ā-sbun.

"There are few words more frequently mispronounced than this. A mere English scholar, who considers the verb to *pronounce* as the root of it, cannot easily conceive why the *o* is thrown out of the second syllable; and, therefore, to correct the mistake, sounds the word as if written *pronunciation*. Those who are sufficiently learned to escape this error, by understanding that the word comes to us either from the Latin *pronunciatio* or the French *pronunciation*, are very apt to fall into another, by sinking the first aspiration, and pronouncing the third syllable like the noun *sea*. But these speakers ought to take notice, that throughout the whole language, *e*, *s* and *t*, preceded by the accent, either primarily or secondarily, and followed by *ea*, *ia*, *io*, or any similar diphthong, always become aspirated, and are pronounced as if written *sbe*. But though Mr. SHERIDAN avoids the vulgar error of sinking the aspiration, he falls into one full as exceptionable; which is that of pronouncing the word in four syllables, as if written *pro-nun-sha-sbun*," &c.

Blowzy, blōze-z.

Blou-ze.

Covetous, kuq-et-yus.

Kov-e-tus.

When we observed the pronunciation of this word by Mr. Alexander, we immediately turned to the word *lower*, to see if it were not pronounced *lov-yur*, one being nearly as great an anomaly as the other.

Courier, kūr-yūr.

Kōo-rēer.

"This word is perfectly French, and often makes a plain Englishman the object of laughter to the polite world, by pronouncing it like *currier*, a dresser of leather."

Cucumber, }
Koo-kum-bur. }

Kou-kum-bur.

"In some counties of England, especially in the west, this word is pronounced as if written *coo-kum-ber*. This, though rather nearer to the orthography than *cucumber*, is yet faulty in adopting the obtuse *u* heard in *bull*, rather than the open *u* heard in *cucumis*, the Latin word from whence cucumber may have been derived: though, from the adoption of the *b*, I should rather suppose we took it from the French *concombre*. But however this may be, it seems too firmly fixed in its sound of *cucumber* to be altered, and must be classed with its irregular fellow esculent *asparagus*;" of which he observes—"The corruption of this word into *sparrowgrass* is so general, that *asparagus* has an air of stiffness and pedantry."—It is a satisfaction to us to remark, that neither of these words, especially the last, seems so "firmly fixed" in their corrupt sounds in this

ALEXANDER.

Coquet, *kō-qwet'*.
 Quadrille, *kwa-dril*.

After, *âf-ter*. } Long I-
 Basket, *bâs-ket*. } talian *a*,
 Answer, *ân-sur*. } as in
 Lancet, *lân-set*. } dance.

Chamber, *tchâm-bur*.
 Buoy, *boy*.

Been, *bēn*.
 Architect, *arch-i-tect*.
 Archivez, *ar-tcheevz*.

Devoir, *dē-vwōr*.
 Drought, *drowth*.

Docile, *dō-sil*.

Drama, *drā-ma*. } last *a* as
 Sofa, *sō-fa*. } in *fate*.

Humorous, *bū-mur-us*.
 Hospital, *hō-pit-al*.
 Issue, *is-sbu*.
 Nature, *nā-tur*.

Grandeur, *gran-dur*.
 Verdure, *vur-dur*.
 Educate, *ed-u-cate*.

WALKER.

country as to render the correct pronunciation of them either "stiff or pedantic." But, on the other hand, the word *whortleberry*, with us, is justly liable to the full force of his observation, as its vulgar and corrupt pronunciation of *buk-kle-ber-re* seems to be incurably fixed.

Ko-ket'.
Ka-dril.

"The pronunciation of the letter *a* seems, for some years, to have been advancing to the short sound of this letter, as heard in *band*, *land*, &c. and pronouncing the *a* in *after*, *answer*, *basket*, *lancet*, &c. as long, as in *calf*, *half*, &c. borders very closely on vulgarity."

Tchâm-bur.
Buoc.

"This word is too often pronounced exactly like *boy*. This, however, is an impropriety which ought to be avoided by correct speakers."

Bîn.
Ar-kî-tect.
Ar-kivez.

"When *arch*, signifying chief, begins a word from the Greek language, and is followed by a vowel, it is always pronounced *ark*, as in *archangel*, *architect*, &c. But when we prefix *arch* to a word of our own, and this word begins with a consonant, we pronounce it so as to rhyme with *march*, as *archduke*, *archbishop*, &c."

De-wwōr.
Drout.

"The placing the *t* before the *b* is the pronunciation of the vulgar."

Dōs-sil.

"Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Nares, Mr. Scott, Mr. Perry, and Mr. Smith, make the first syllable of this word short, and Buchanan only makes it long."

Dra-mă, or *dram-mă*.
Sō-fă.

"Here the short Italian *a*, as in *măt*, is used,"

Tu-mur-us.
Os-pe-tal.
Isb-sbu.
Nā-tchure.

"There is a vulgar pronunciation of this word, as if written *na-tur*, which cannot be too carefully avoided."

Gran-jeur.
Ver-jure.
Ed-ju-cate.

"*D*, like *t*, to which it is so nearly related, when it comes after the accent, and is followed by the diphthongs *ie*, *io*, *ia*, or *eu*, slides into *gnb*, or

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Lettuce, *lèt-tūs.*
Plaintiff, *plān-tīf.*

Prediliction, }
Pre-di-lik-shun.

Physiognomy, }
Fiz-i-ŭn-o-me.

Irrefragible, *ir-re-frāji-bl.*

Mermaid, *māre-māde.*

Saucy, *sās-e.*
Saucer, *sās-ur.*

the consonant *j*; thus soldier is universally and justly pronounced as if written *sol-je*; grandeur, *gran-jeur*; and verdure (where it must be remembered that *u* is a diphthong), *ver-jeure*; and, for the same reason, education is elegantly pronounced *ed-ju-ca-tion*. But duke, duel, and reduce, pronounced *juke*, *ju-el*, *re-juce*, where the accent is after the *d*, cannot be too much reprobated."

Let-tīs.
Plāne-tīf.

"This word was universally, till of late years, pronounced with the first syllable like *plan*; but a laudable desire of reforming the language has restored the diphthong to its true sound, and the first syllable of this word like *plane*, is now the current pronunciation of all our courts of justice. Mr. Sheridan and Entick agree in this pronunciation."

Pre-de-lēk-shun.

Mr. Alexander not only *mispronounces*, but *mispels* this word. It is not to be found in any English dictionary besides Walker, excepting Scott and Entick, and, it is said, was first introduced by the author of Junius.

Fiz-e-ŭg-no-me.

"There is a prevailing mispronunciation of this word, by leaving out the *g*, as if the word were French. If this arises from ignorance of the common rules of spelling, it may be observed that *g* is always pronounced before *n* when it is not in the same syllable; as *signify*, *indignity*, &c. but if affectation be the cause of this error, Dr. Young's *Love of Fame* will be the best cure for it."

Ir-ref'fra-ga-bl., or *ir-re-frag'-a-bl.*
The only question which has ever arisen among orthoëpists respecting this word, is whether the accent should be placed on the second or third syllable. Dr. Johnson, Ash, Kenrick, Bailey, Entick, W. Johnson, Perry, Barclay and Buchannan, place the accent on the third syllable, Scott on the second or third, Sheridan alone places it on the second, and Walker inclines to side with him. But no one before Alexander ever dreamed of turning the *g* into *j*.

Mēr-made.

"The first syllable of this word is frequently pronounced like the noun *mare*; but this is a vulgarism which must be carefully avoided."

Saw-se.
Saw-cer.

"There is a corrupt pronunciation of the diphthong *au* among the vulgar, which is giving the

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Mischievous, *mis-tchēve-us*

as the sound of the Italian *a*, nearly as if written *sarcy*, *sarcer*, &c. but this pronunciation cannot be too carefully avoided."

Mis'-tche-vus.

"There is an accentuation of this word upon the second syllable, chiefly confined to the vulgar. Analogy certainly requires that the verb formed from the noun *mischief* should be *mischieve*, as from *thief*, *thieves*; *grief*, *grieve*; *belief*, *believe*, &c. But what analogy can give sanction to a vulgarity? What Pope observes of the learned in another place is but too applicable in this:

'So much they scorn the crowd, that if the throng
'By chance go right, they purposely go wrong.'

To which we may add, that in language, as in many other cases, it is safer to be wrong with the polite than right with the vulgar."

Serge, *sārje*.*Serdge.*Fierce, *fūrse*.*Fēerse*, or *fērse*.Pierce, *pūrse*.*Pēerse*, or *pērse*.Suit (*a retinue*), *sūte*.

"The first mode of pronouncing this word is the most general; the second is heard chiefly on the stage;" but the pronunciation given it by Mr. Alexander has long since been proscribed by the polite world.

Suete. (French.)

Mr. Alexander both spells and pronounces this word wrong; when it means *a retinue* it should be spelt with an *e*, *suite*.

Satiety, *sā-she-te*.*Sa-tī'e-ty*.

"The sound of the second syllable of this word has been grossly mistaken by the generality of speakers; nor is it much to be wondered at. *Ti*, with the accent on it, succeeded by a vowel, is a very uncommon predicament for an English syllable to be under; and, therefore, it is not surprising that it has been almost universally confounded with an apparently similar, but really different assemblage of accent, vowels and consonants. So accustomed is the ear to the aspirated sound of *t*, when followed by two vowels, that whenever these appear, we are apt to annex the very same sound to that letter, without attending to an essential circumstance in this word, which distinguishes it from every other in the language. There is no English word of exactly the same form with *satiety*, and, therefore, it cannot, like most other words, be tried by its peers; but analogy, that grand resource of reason, will as clearly determine, in this case, as if the most positive evidence were produced.

"In the first place, then, the sound commonly given to the second syllable of this word, which

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is that of the first of *si-lence*, as if written *sa-si-e-ty*, is never found annexed to the same letters throughout the whole language. *Ti*, when succeeded by two vowels, in every instance but the word in question, sounds exactly like *sb*; thus *satiare*, *expatiare*, &c. are pronounced as if written *sa-sbe-ate*, *ex-pa-sbe-ate*, &c. and not *sa-se-ate*, *ex-pa-se-ate*, &c. and, therefore, if the *t* must be aspirated in this word, it ought, at least, to assume that aspiration which is found among similar assemblages of letters, and instead of *sa-si-e-ty*, it ought to be sounded *sa-sbi-e-ty*: in this mode of pronunciation a greater parity might be pleaded; nor should we introduce a new aspiration to reproach our language with needless irregularity. But if we once cast an eye on those conditions on which we give an aspirated sound to the dentals we shall find both these methods of pronouncing this word equally remote from analogy. In almost every termination where the consonants *t*, *d*, *c* and *s* precede the vowels *ea*, *ia*, *ie*, *io*, &c. as in *martial*, *soldier*, *suspicion*, *confusion*, *anxious*, *prescience*, &c. the accent is on the syllable immediately before these consonants, and they all assume the aspiration; but in *elephantiasis*, *bendiasis*, *society*, *anxiety*, *science*, &c. the accent is immediately after these consonants, and the *t*, *d*, *c* and *s*, are pronounced as free from aspiration as the same letters in *tiar*, *diet*, *cion*, *Ixion*, &c. the position of the accent makes the whole difference. But if analogy in our own language were silent, the uniform pronunciation of words from the learned languages, where these letters occur, would be sufficient to decide the dispute. Thus, in *elephantiasis*, *Miltiades*, *satietas*, &c. the antepenultimate syllable *ti* is always pronounced like the English noun *tie*; nor should we dream of giving *ti* the aspirated sound in these words, though there would be exactly the same reason for it as in *satiety*; for, except in very few instances, as we pronounce Latin in the analogy of our own language, no reason can be given why we should pronounce the antepenultimate syllable in *satietas* one way, and that in *satiety* another.

"I should have thought my time thrown away in so minute an investigation of the pronunciation of this word, if I had not found the best judges disagree about it. That Mr. Sheridan supposed it ought to be pronounced *sa-si-e-ty*, is evident from his giving this word as an instance of the various sounds of *s*, and telling us that here it sounds *s*. Mr. Garrick, whom I consulted on this word, told me, if there were any rules for pronunciation I was certainly right in mine; but that

ALEXANDER.

Tenable, tene-a-bl.
Wound, wound.

Yet, yit.

WALKER.

he and his literary acquaintance pronounced it in the other manner. Dr. Johnson likewise thought I was right, but that the greater number of speakers were against me; and Dr. Lowth told me he was clearly of my opinion, but that he could get nobody to follow him. I was much flattered to find my sentiments confirmed by so great a judge, and much more flattered when I found my reasons were entirely new to him.

"But, notwithstanding the tide of opinion was some years ago so much against me, I have since had the pleasure of finding some of the most judicious philologists on my side. Mr. Elphinston, Dr. Kenrick, and Mr. Perry, mark the word as I have done; and Mr. Nares is of opinion it ought to be so pronounced, though for a reason very different from those I have produced, namely, in order to keep it as distinct as may be from the word *society*. While Mr. Fry frankly owns it is very difficult to determine the proper pronunciation of this word.

"Thus I have ventured to decide where 'Doctors disagree,' and have been induced to spend so much time on the correction of this word, as the improper pronunciation of it does not, as in most other cases, proceed from an evident caprice of custom, as in *busy* and *bury*, or from a desire of drawing nearer to the original language, but from an absolute mistake of the principles on which we pronounce our own."

[We have presented the observations of Mr. Walker on this word at full length, as they appeared to us ingenious, and because it would be satisfactory to see all the reasons for the pronunciation of a word which is more the subject of dispute than any other in our language.]

Ten-a-bl.

Woond, or wound.

"The first pronunciation of this word, though received in the polite world, is certainly a capricious novelty. Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Scott adopt the first sound of this diphthong; Dr. Kenrick and W. Johnson the second; Mr. Perry gives both, but prefers the first. I am, however, of opinion with Mr. Nares, who says this pronunciation ought to be entirely banished. But where is the man bold enough to risk the imputation of vulgarity by attempting such an expulsion?"

Yet.

"The *e* in this word is frequently changed, by incorrect speakers, into *i*; but though this change in the word *yes* is agreeable to the best and most established usage, in *yet* it is the mark of incorrectness and vulgarity."

Having pointed out some of the errors of the American compiler, we shall take this occasion to reverse the picture, and exhibit a few examples of pronunciation, in which we believe the best American speakers would prefer our own established usage to that adopted by Mr. Walker.

ENGLISH.

Confessor, *Con'-fes-sur.*
Successor, *Suc'-ses-sur.*

AMERICAN.

Ken-fes'-sur.
Suk-ses'-sur.

Mr. Walker acknowledges the impropriety of placing the accent on the first syllable, but thinks the usage so universal that it cannot be changed. This impropriety, however, so far from being universal in this country, has not yet obtained, nor ought it to be encouraged.

Deaf, *dēf.*

Dēfe.

The same author remarks of the word *cheerful*, that, like *fearful*, it has contracted an irregular pronunciation that seems more expressive of the turn of mind it indicates than the long open *e*. A similar reason may operate to induce a preference of the long sound of *e* in the word *deaf*, as more significant of the idea.

Pour, *pour*, to rhyme
with *sour*.

Pōre.

It appears that Sheridan, Scott, W. Johnson, Dr. Kenrick, Mr. Perry and Mr. Smith, agree with Walker in the pronunciation of this word. Mr. Nares pronounces it like Mr. Alexander, and that is the American pronunciation.

Shone, *shōn.*

Shōne.

All the English *orthoepists* agree with Walker in his sound of this word; but the other is justly preferred by polite speakers among us.

Tassel, *tās-sel.*

Tos'l.

This, by Jones, is pronounced *tos'l*, which is the sound yet in use among us—the other would be deemed affected.

Raisin, *rē-z'n.*

Rā-zn.

"If antiquity," says Mr. Walker, "can give a sanction to the pronunciation of a word, this may be traced as far back as Queen Elizabeth. *Falstaff*, in the first part of Henry the Fourth, being urged by the prince to give *reasons* for his conduct, tells him that if *raisons* were as plenty as *blackberries* he would not give him one on compulsion. This pun evidently shows these words were pronounced exactly alike in Shakspeare's time, and that Mr. Sheridan's pronunciation of this word, as if written *ray-sn*, is not only contrary to the most settled usage, but destructive of the wit of Shakspeare."

"*Aliquando dormit bonus Homerus.*" When Mr. Walker tells us, in his preface, that "Custom is the sovereign arbiter of language," he must be supposed to mean the usage of living speakers;

ENGLISH.

Acceptable, *ak'-sep-ta-bl.*

"It is much to be regretted that this pronunciation has become so general."

AMERICAN.

and surely the idea of supporting a particular sound by the prevailing pronunciation of a distant century must appear singular, if not absurd. The last reason assigned, that we ought to continue a particular pronunciation through different ages to support a pun, is both puerile and ludicrous. We may add, that the *settled usage* in this country is entirely against him.

Ak'-sep-ta-bl.

We have no occasion for a similar regret, since the pronunciation which Mr. Walker really approves still prevails here, and we hope it will continue.

We have been liberal in our extracts from Mr. *Walker*, not that we regard his authority as infallible, but because his dictionary appears to us eminently the best guide to a correct and elegant pronunciation of our language; and we could not do better than to introduce him to the general notice of our countrymen. Although perfect uniformity in pronunciation is unattainable, yet persons of a delicate and correct ear must be often sensible how desirable it would be to have some standard more fixed than the capricious usage of individuals.

In the *Prosodial Grammar* prefixed to his dictionary, Mr. A. has endeavoured to exhibit all the different sounds of the vowels, consonants and diphthongs; and those who are curious to see how these sounds may be multiplied, may be amused by its perusal. Grammarians have often complained of the imperfection of our alphabet, and have pointed out its redundancies and deficiencies; but the difficulty of introducing any change in this respect appears insurmountable. We do not perceive that any material improvement has been made by Mr. A. on those who have preceded him in the same path. His scheme is confined to *orthoëpy*, and does not treat of the laws of *versification*. Several good treatises on this branch of English prosody are extant, but none more judicious, or better adapted to general use, than the one to be found in the Grammar lately published by LINDLEY MURRAY.

In the *Heathen Mythology*, or classical pronouncing dictionary subjoined, Mr. A. coincides with a late publication on the same subject by Mr. WALKER, entitled "*A Key to Classical Pronunciation*."

Our remarks on this and the preceding article have been extended to a length not foreseen; but those who are interested in such inquiries will not, we trust, think them prolix.

ARTICLE XVI.

A Discourse on some Events of the last Century, delivered in the Brick Church in New-Haven, on Wednesday, January 7, 1801. By Timothy Dwight, D. D. President of Yale College. 8vo. pp. 55. New-Haven. Read. 1801.

THE learned author of this discourse has selected his text from *Deut. xxxii. 7.* "*Remember the days of old; consider the years of many generations; ask thy father, and he will show thee; thy elders, and they will tell thee.*"

After some preliminary observations on the propriety and advantage of investigating past events in which the providence of God is strikingly manifested, he proceeds to give a brief sketch of the progress and condition of the late Colonies and of the United States during the last century. The rapid increase of their population may be seen from the following paragraph:

"In the year 1700, five of the United States were mere forests, without a civilized inhabitant. These were Vermont, Kentucky, North-Carolina, Tennessee and Georgia. New-Hampshire contained eight incorporated towns, out of two hundred and seven which it now contains; Massachusetts eighty, out of four hundred and four; and Connecticut twenty-eight out of one hundred and eight. New-York, New-Jersey, Maryland and Virginia, had far fewer settlements than New-England; and in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and South-Carolina, settlements were scarcely begun."

Independent of the religious and moral truths inculcated in century sermons, they may be rendered instructive to the historian, politician and philanthropist, by the facts which they contain relative to the progress of society, government and science. Most of our readers will be gratified with the following picture of New-England, as exhibited at the two extremes of the eighteenth century.

"In the year 1700 there were one hundred and sixteen incorporated towns in New-England, and probably about eighty thousand inhabitants. There are now about eight hundred and sixty towns, and probably 1,200,000 people. In these towns there are not far from one thousand three hundred religious congregations of different denominations of christians. In Massachusetts and Connecticut there are, if I have num-

bered them accurately, one thousand and eight such congregations, of which seven hundred and forty-nine are furnished with the preaching customary to the several classes. The emigrants from New-England, and their descendants who have settled in the other States, may be reckoned at half a million. The people of New-England have therefore doubled, notwithstanding their almost incessant wars, within a little less than twenty-three years on an average. The whole number of original colonists is computed at 20,000.

" Within New-England, also, there are, in all probability, not less than four thousand schools; in which about 130,000 children of both sexes are continually educated. Seven colleges are also erected in this country, of which the five first established usually contain about seven hundred students. The last year upwards of two hundred students were admitted into these five seminaries.

" The wealth of the New-England States has much more rapidly increased than the number of inhabitants, and, since the existence of the present American government, much more rapidly than at any former period. In proof of these assertions, if they can be supposed to need any proof, may be alleged the fences, the herds, the cultivation, the public and private buildings, the dress, the furniture, the mode of living, and the business of the inhabitants. If we except Great-Britain, we possess more than half the shipping owned by any country in Europe. Our exports cannot be accurately estimated, because a large part of them is sent abroad from the port of New-York; but those which we directly convey to foreign countries are very great. In the mean time it is probable that abundance is more universally found in our houses, barns and cellars, than in those of any other people. We do not, therefore, possess merely, but eminently enjoy also, the bounties of Providence.

" Health has usually existed here in a degree not often equalled, and perhaps never exceeded. In some towns it appears, by long continued registers of births and deaths, that one out of four and one out of five, extensively one out of six, and generally one out of seven, of those who are born, live to seventy years of age; and that half of those who are born live to twenty years.

" The internal peace of New-England, the harmony of the inhabitants with each other, and with their government, has been almost uninterrupted. One considerable interruption has indeed existed for a short time, and only one, except such

as have been originated by those who were not inhabitants. The people of this country have appeared always to understand distinctly, what has most usually not been understood at all, the perfect consistency of being free and being governed.

“The plenty which I have mentioned has in every period abounded here, with hardly an exception. A scarcity of food has been rarely known; a famine never. This plenty, and, indeed, the wealth generally, has been more equally distributed than in any other country, and as equally as probably can be, amid the present unequal endowments and exertions of men. The number of public poor, it is presumed, is not greater than one out of four hundred of the inhabitants; a fact equally uncommon and delightful.

“Public crimes, at the same time, have been few; and most of these have been committed by such as were not natives. Law, except at the commencement of the revolution, has not been interrupted for a moment by the choice of the citizens.

“All these things united, constitute a mass of blessings rarely, if ever, seen in the present world. How great ought to be our gratitude to that glorious Being who has so eminently distinguished us from the great body of mankind! Ought we not, with the enraptured Psalmist, to say, ‘He hath not dealt so with any nation?’

“Among the subjects which claim a share of our attention on this day, the seminary of science, in which a considerable part of my audience have so intimate a personal interest, is clearly one. It was founded, so far as that term is predicable of the first donation made, in the year 1700. The first charter was given in October, 1701, and the first public commencement holden 1702. It was then, and for several years after, a mere wanderer from town to town, and was not finally settled in this place until the year 1717.

“Within the first thirty years after it was instituted, there were graduated 217 students, which is exactly the number belonging to the four classes at the beginning of the present year. Since that time there have been graduated here 2568 persons, of whom 2326 were educated in this seminary. Of this number 136 have been advanced to the high offices of magistracy and government, and 786 have been ordained to the ministry of the gospel; almost all of whom have been men of acknowledged piety and evangelical life. Great numbers have, in early life, been occupied by the instruction of

youth; have, together with others, been afterwards members of our own and of other legislatures; have sate [*sat*] on the bench of justice; have usefully filled the professions of physic and law; have sustained, with reputation, the inferior offices of magistracy; and have performed for their fellow citizens that immense variety of public business which, without any appropriate name, exists every day, and in every place. The importance of this institution may easily be seen in these facts, particularly in this, that it has furnished the preaching of the gospel, and the means of the regular public worship of God, to seven hundred and sixty congregations, probably consisting of more than 600,000 persons, who would not otherwise have enjoyed these blessings. Hence is evident the wisdom of our ancestors in founding the institution, and the goodness of God in giving it birth, and continuing and enlarging its prosperity.

“The progress of knowledge, it will be supposed, from the literary establishments, has been respectable; probably not inferior to the same progress in the enlightened countries of Europe. We are, indeed, far behind those countries in learning and the speculative sciences. This, I apprehend, is no dishonour to our country. Great literary and scientific attainments cannot be made without great leisure, as well as great talents and application. Such leisure is rarely found here. No ample literary foundations are furnished here for the support of ingenious and speculative men, in the pursuits of learning and science. No institutions exist, on which genius may, undisturbed and secure, indulge itself in the field of mere learning or mere science. All men here are, and must be, men of business, and take some active part in human affairs. The knowledge which qualifies for this is imbibed by great multitudes to a respectable degree; while the people at large are furnished with information, it is believed, beyond those of any other country. A child of fourteen, who cannot read, write, and keep the customary accompts, is rarely met with; and a great part of those who arrive to adult years read to a considerable extent.”

The greatest portion of the remainder of this discourse is occupied with a very alarming description of the progress of *infidelity*, which is regarded as constituting “far the most interesting and prominent characteristic of the past century.”—On this subject the eloquence of the learned President has been often exercised, but never with more lively zeal, glowing description, and animated language, than are exhibited in the present discourse.

It has been generally supposed, and so we have considered it, that by *Antichrist* was meant the *Roman Pontiff*, or *Hierarchy*. But Dr. Dwight (p. 36—38) endeavours to prove, by various arguments and texts of scripture, that the name *Antichrist* “is far more justly applied to the collective body of modern infidels than either to the Romish Hierarchy, or to the head of it.” His reasoning on this point will appear, to most, ingenious and forcible, if not conclusive.

This discourse is concluded by a very earnest exhortation to the people of New-England to hold fast the religion of their ancestors; to adhere, with unshaken fidelity, to those religious and moral institutions, habits and practices, which have hitherto been their greatest glory, which have promoted their prosperity, and been distinguished by the protecting favour of heaven.

Dr. D. considers the people of New-England as bound together by peculiarly strong ties—a common origin—an entire community of opinions, language, habits and customs—as forming an homogenous body, with an unity of interests which distinguish them from the rest of the United States.

“Come out, therefore, from among them, and be ye separate, saith the Lord, and touch not the unclean thing; and I will receive you, and will be a father to you: and ye shall be my sons and daughters, saith the Lord Almighty.”

From this quotation, and the tenor of the context, it may, perhaps, be supposed, that the reverend author is desirous that the States which pass under the general denomination of New-England should withdraw from the *union*, and form a separate and independent nation, as being the best means of preserving the purity of their religion and morals from the corruptions of antichristian philosophy, and the seduction of foreign manners. We cannot think, however, that it was intended to recommend a political measure so pregnant with calamitous consequences to the prosperity and happiness of our country.

We would fain believe that the force of those wise and excellent institutions which have distinguished the people of New-England, and which have generated habits and manners so virtuous and exemplary, is sufficient, under the guidance of that power who has hitherto sustained them, for their maintenance against the seductions of error, and the allurements of vice. To accomplish much good something must be hazarded. That virtue is of a doubtful quality which cannot pass through the ordeal of social life unimpaired, and

whose only security is to be found in seclusion and obscurity.

This sermon, considered in a literary view, is one of the best we have seen from the same pen. It is, in general, ably constructed, and contains some passages unusually spirited and forcible.

ARTICLE XVII.

A Discourse, delivered April 6th, 1801, in the Middle Dutch Church, before the New-York Missionary Society, at their Annual Meeting. By John N. Abeel, A. M. one of the Ministers of the Reformed Dutch Church in the City of New-York. 8vo. pp. 67. New-York. Collins and Son. 1801.

THIS is the sixth annual discourse which has been delivered before the New-York Missionary Society; and we observe, with pleasure, that there appears to be no remission of their laudable zeal and exertions in the interesting cause for the promotion of which they associated. We call it interesting, because we conceive every attempt to spread the knowledge of christianity among the heathen tribes, while it must engage the most fervent feelings and prayers of the christian, should also excite the curiosity and attention of the philosopher, and, indeed, of every man accustomed to study and to reflect on human affairs.

Mr. Abeel exhibits himself a warm and an able friend of the missionary undertaking. The passage of scripture which he chose as the subject of discourse, is *Haggai ii. 6, 7.* "*Thus saith the Lord of hosts; Yet once, it is a little while, and I will shake the heavens, and the earth, and the sea, and the dry land; and I will shake all nations, and the desire of all nations shall come.*"—In illustrating this text, he considers, 1. "The character under which the prophet presents the Redeemer;" and, 2. "The events which develop the plans of his grace, and prepare the way for the establishment of his kingdom." Under the first head he shows that the title, *The desire of all nations*, implies, that Christ is, 1. *The source of that information which all men need*—2. *The only acceptable sacrifice for sin*—3. *The dispenser of those blessings which human beings most ardently desire*—and, 4. *That he is lite-*

rally the desire of the Jew and the hope of the Christian.—Under the second division he expresses an opinion, that the various revolutions and convulsions which have taken place, which we now witness, and which are yet to be expected, “result not from a defect of goodness in the righteous Governor of the universe, but from the condition of our nature, and from the state of the world—That these agitations display the glory and extent of the divine government in an impressive manner—That they are the means which God employs or over-rules for the establishment of his church, and the destruction of her enemies—And, finally, that they are the signs of the Redeemer’s coming, and constitute the fulfilment of his word.” These several topics are amplified and illustrated at considerable length, and supported by apposite quotations from scripture, and allusions to events recorded in history.—To these views succeed a few pages of practical application, including a number of pertinent remarks on the subject of missionary efforts, and the designs of the association before which the sermon was delivered.

We have perused this sermon with uncommon pleasure. It is sensible, serious, dignified and eloquent. The sentiments which the author utters are those in which most christians will cordially concur. They display a discerning and comprehensive mind, a warm attachment to evangelical truth, a mild and amiable temper, and a fervour of piety becoming a minister of the gospel. The character of Mr. A.’s composition also corresponds with the importance and elevation of his sentiments. His arrangement is good, his style correct and polished, and, in general, indicative of a just taste. And if, in the perusal, a few instances of unfinished periods, or of inaccurate or feeble construction, occur—yet, amidst so many excellences, both of matter and diction, we cannot but heartily commend the discourse, as doing honour both to the literary and religious character of the writer.

Mr. A. thus speaks of the benign tendency of the gospel to promote human happiness:

“If the best system of morals, enforced by the strongest motives, contribute to the perfection of the human character; if the contemplation of boundless excellence exalt the soul; if love, joy and peace, residing in the heart, and leading to whatsoever things are lovely and of good report, ensure the testimony of a good conscience; if the firm persuasion of a particular providence be the strongest consolation under the calamities of life; if a sense of the divine favour which strips

death of its terrors, and establishes the hope of immortality; be valuable; if, in a word, the pleasures of devotion and virtue, carried to the highest pitch, be the sum of personal happiness—then the influence of the gospel in promoting it will not be denied.

“In this view the infidel has sometimes been constrained to commend it, while he has ungenerously charged upon it those persecutions which it forbids, that bloodshed which it abhors, and the dreadful effects of passions which it subdues. The charge has been wickedly supported by the misconstruction of a passage, in which Christ did not at all allude to the tendency of his religion, but foretold the effects that would result from the unreasonable opposition of its enemies. ‘Think not that I am come to send peace on earth; I came not to send peace, but a sword.’* That this passage is not to be taken in the sense which at first view it suggests, is obvious from its connection with the whole of our Saviour’s discourse, and particularly from the genius of his religion, which is so benign, that, in proportion as it is received and understood, it cannot fail to improve the state of society. All the evils which have been imputed to it arise from the ignorance, the bigotry, the superstition, the enthusiasm, of which it is the most effectual, perhaps I may say the only, cure. These assertions would admit of strong proof from fact, had we time to contemplate the blessed change which christianity, notwithstanding the corruptions of it, hath already effected in the state of the world. We might trace its happy influence in all the relations of life, in the constitutions of states, the spirit of their laws, and the mode of administration. We might enter those charitable institutions, where every want is relieved, every disease mitigated, every calamity softened; and hear the poor, the sick, and even the profligate, blessing the religion of Jesus. We might view his sincere follower travelling through the world, ‘not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces, or the stateliness of temples; not to make accurate measurements of remains of ancient grandeur; not to form a scale of the curiosity of modern art; not to collect medals; or collate manuscripts;—but to dive into the depths of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hospitals; to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain; and to take the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression and contempt; to remember the forgotten; to attend to the neglected; to

* Mat. x. 34.

visit the forsaken; and to compare and collate the distresses of all men, in all countries.* We might compare the state of society, in those countries where the gospel has had any influence, with the condition of the nations, both in ancient and modern times, which have had no aid from revelation. From these inquiries it would appear, that just so far as men have listened to his instructions, and imbibed his spirit, have their distresses been relieved, and their social blessings multiplied. And the conclusion would follow, that when he is universally known and acknowledged, wars will cease to the ends of the earth; neither the voice of the oppressor, nor the groan of the prisoner, will be heard; righteousness, and peace, and joy, will prevail."

The following passage concludes the discourse:

"From the pleasant habitation of Zion let your imaginations carry you into the habitations of cruelty—the wilderness where the benighted Indian roams.—Behold the hoary chief. His enemy fell into his hands, and he triumphed in every groan which slow torture could produce. His son offended him, and he plunged a knife into his bosom. His aged mother was accused of witchcraft, and he thought it lawful to take her life. His relatives have been slain, and he thirsts for the blood of the murderers. Weighed down with sorrow and with years, view him stretched upon the bed of death. The Comforter is afar off; the balm of Gilead hath never been applied; no promise is heard to soften the anguish of disease. His only heaven is the country beyond the hills; its highest pleasure food, without the toils of the chase. The grounds of his hope are the trophies of his cruelty. I see him point to the number of these which hang around his hut: I hear him charge the youthful warrior to emulate his deeds, and to revenge him of his enemies. The earthly scene is closed—the awful realities of eternity open upon his soul. Oh how hard must it be to die in total uncertainty! how dreadful under such delusion! If you have seen the demerit of sin, the case now presented will awaken all your compassion. If you have known the value of the soul, you will not cease to pray for its redemption. If you rightly appreciate the instruction, the atonement, the unsearchable riches of Christ, the heathen shall not desire them in vain. If the love of Christ constrain you, neither your substance nor your efforts will be wanting to spread the

* Character of Howard, by Burke, in his speech to the electors of Bristol, 1780.

savour of his name; and if your faith in his promises be firm, no discouragements will cause you to despond. From the very events which threaten the subversion of all human institutions, your hope will derive stability—*For thus saith the Lord of hosts; Yet once, it is a little while, and I will shake the heavens, and the earth, and the sea, and the dry land; and I will shake all nations, and the desire of all nations shall come.*"

The sermon is succeeded by the annual report of the Board of Directors. We wish the limits to which we are confined permitted the insertion of this document here entire. We learn from it that the Rev. Joseph Bullen, and Deacon Ebenezer Rice, with their families, consisting in all of nineteen persons, have established a christian settlement among the Chickasaw Indians; have been well received by them; and are likely, in a very pleasing degree, to answer the great end of their mission—That the Rev. Elkanah Holmes has been, for a number of months, employed as a Missionary among the Indians of the Seneca and Tuscarora nations, by whom his reception was respectful, affectionate and promising—And that the society have had Paul Cuffee, an Indian preacher, for some time usefully engaged in ministering to the remnants of three tribes on the east end of Long-Island. The Directors, in this report, express great thankfulness for the encouragement they have received, and abundant confidence of success.

The pamphlet is closed by an *appendix*, containing, 1. Letters and addresses from several Indian chiefs and tribes to Mr. Holmes, and to the Missionary Society. 2. An address to the Missionary Society of New-York, from a society of the same nature established in *Rotterdam*. 3. An address also to the Missionary Society of New-York, from the Baptist Missionaries in the East-Indies. To which are added, a state of the society's *funds*, and a list of the officers and directors for the current year. The whole constituting a body of information well worthy the attention of the public.

ARTICLE XVIII.

The Doctrine of Perpetual Bondage reconcilable with the infinite Justice of God, a Truth plainly asserted in the Jewish and Christian Scriptures. By John Beck. 8vo. pp. 24. Savannah. Seymour and Woolhopter. 1800.

THIS pamphlet, which is dedicated to "the good people of Georgia and South-Carolina," contains two sermons, in which the author endeavours to justify negro slavery "on scriptural grounds." He avows it to be his wish and design to counteract the exertions of the manumission societies which have been, for some time, formed in the middle and eastern States. And he confidently hopes, that, after the perusal of his work, no christian can hesitate to acknowledge the lawfulness and propriety of holding Africans in perpetual bondage.

It would be difficult for us to express the mingled emotions of contempt and indignation, which were excited in our minds by the perusal of this weak and iniquitous performance. Had any one attempted to *excuse* the practice which has, at one time or another, prevailed in every part of our country, and which especially reigns in the southern States, from the actual habits of the people—from the dangers of immediate emancipation—and from the difficulty of applying any remedy to the evil, we could have listened to him with patience. We are sensible that our southern brethren, on these grounds, labour under real and most painful embarrassment respecting their slaves; and we know that many of them deplore the necessity (for so they profess to view it) of continuing the evil. But to find a person attempting to *defend* the practice of slavery upon *principle*; endeavouring to reconcile it with the eternal dictates of justice and humanity; and, above all, pretending to find in the word of God a support for such an execrable infringement of every fundamental right of our common nature, is truly astonishing. We had supposed there was scarcely an individual in America who would venture to avow principles so absurd and wicked; and we would fondly believe that Mr. Beck has the disgraceful singularity of standing alone among the citizens of Georgia, in holding and propagating these opinions.

We shall not so far trespass on the patience of our readers as to present them with any analysis of, or extracts from, this wretched effort of ignorance and error. Such frivolous reasoning—such perversions of scripture—such unblushing attempts to subvert every principle of justice and benevolence—and such false charges of corrupt design in the manumission societies in the middle and eastern States—could only excite disgust. And we will add, that if every sin recorded in the sacred history, as having been practised by the Israelites, be a proper example for our imitation; and if every prophetic intimation of what wicked men should, in after times, do, under the impulse of selfishness and corrupt passions, were to be considered a rule of duty, then the most atrocious crimes of which man is capable may be defended from scripture.

We are sensible that, on the subject of slavery in general, a due regard to the situation of the southern States renders it proper that we should speak with caution. *Summum jus, summa injuria.* But such an insult on the humane and religious feelings of our countrymen as this pamphlet presents, ought not to pass without notice and reprobation. And we have no doubt that a large portion even of the slave-holders, in every part of America, would be ashamed to adopt the language and the arguments of Mr. Beck.

ARTICLE XIX.

Considerations on the Government of the Territory of Columbia, as they recently appeared in the National Intelligencer, under the signature of Epaminondas. 4to. pp. 18. Washington. Smith. 1801.

Epaminondas on the Government of the Territory of Columbia, No. V. being a Review of a Work on the same Subject by a Private Citizen. 4to. pp. 13. Georgetown. Green and English. 1801.

AUGUSTUS B. WOODWARD, formerly of New-York, is said to be the author of these Considerations. A committee of the House of Representatives having made a report respecting the government of the Territory of Columbia, this writer undertakes to expose the incompetency of their scheme, and proceeds to delineate and recommend a system of government which he conceives best calculated to promote the in-

terest and prosperity of the federal district. With this view he considers the government of Columbia under two relations: first, as it regards the general government; and, secondly, as it respects its local concerns.

After descanting, with much penetration and good sense, on the peculiar circumstances of this Territory, Mr. W. sketches a plan both for its general and local regulation. He insists with much emphasis on the propriety of placing this district on a separate footing, and totally independent on the jurisdiction of the two States by which it has been ceded: that, for purposes purely local, it should have a government of its own, constituted in some of its branches by the President of the United States, and contrrollable in all its operations by the Federal Legislature: and, further, that, considering the district as analogous to a state, it should enjoy a representation both in the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

We do not learn that these Considerations of Mr. W. which are expressed in a style nervous, spirited, and correct, obtained the acquiescence of Congress. An act was passed the last session, directing that the laws of Virginia and Maryland, as they now exist, should continue in force in those parts of the district as were respectively ceded by the said States.

The following is no unfavourable display of Mr. W.'s rhetorical talents:

"The organization once made, the Territory of Columbia will experience no further anarchy or confusion; but will advance in the career of glory, with firm and steady steps, at the front of that confederacy whose collected statesmen she receives into her bosom, and returns to convey her science and her arts, her wisdom and her polish, to the remotest corners of this wide-spreading empire. Supported by the firm and solid pillars of the State Governments, she crowns with a light majestic dignity the dome of the edifice. With greater justice may it receive the inscription on the Louvre at Paris: *'Non orbis, talem gentem; nulla gens, parem urbem habet.'*"

The composition of Mr. W. carries with it, in general, an air of masculine vigour and logical dexterity. In a few instances, however, it appears too artificial and elaborate; and we think its dignity is sometimes diminished by an useless accumulation of pompous words. The following sentence will, perhaps, justify our last observation:

"That discordancy of sentiment which the collision of first impressions generally elicits, seldom fails, when succeeded by candid retrospection and careful comparison, to open the avenue of truth, and to generate an approximation to unanimity."

Our intercourse with the federal metropolis must be more frequent, before our ears can become familiar with such words and phrases as the following: *Ascertainment, discontinuous, sustention, Prezzidobiad, destiny of contempt, superficial nihility.*

ARTICLE XX.

Observations on the Arguments of Professor Rush in favour of the inflammatory Nature of the Disease produced by the Bite of a mad Dog. By James Mease, M. D. 8vo. pp. 62. Philadelphia. Young. 1801.

THE persevering attention which Dr. Mease bestows on the Canine Disease does him honour. He appears to avail himself of every opportunity to extend his own observations, as well as to learn the facts or opinions presented by others. And though clouds and darkness hang upon the subject, and may, perhaps, much longer continue to blind our eyes, he still exerts himself, with unabated zeal, to hasten the dawn of an improved theory and practice in this frightful distemper.

Professor Rush, from the analogy obviously subsisting between tetanus and hydrophobia, was induced, many years ago, to apply to the latter the principles he had adopted, and successfully practised, in the former. He had concluded that tetanus is a disease of relaxation and debility. Dr. Mease, from conviction of the truth of this opinion, supported it in his Inaugural Essay, published in Philadelphia, in May, 1792. But, since that period, Professor Rush has relinquished his first theory, and now believes that both tetanus and hydrophobia depend upon excess of action, and that they are to be cured by debilitating remedies. The arguments adduced by the Professor have not, however, operated with such force on the mind of Dr. M. as to change his opinion; and this pamphlet is intended to combat the new doctrine of the Professor, and to show that in the adoption of it error has taken the place of truth.

Our limits do not allow us to follow Dr. M. through the course of argument by which he opposes the opinion of Professor Rush. But we conceive that it will be acceptable to the reader to learn the practical treatment of the disease in question, which now, after so much reading, reflection and experience on the subject, Dr. M. is disposed to recommend. This may be collected from the following quotation:

"In my Inaugural Essay I recommended the use of opium on the principle of its antispasmodic virtue, but in much larger doses than it had ever been prescribed in the disease, because I perceived that the small quantities which had always been prescribed never in the least mitigated the symptoms. But from the examples before stated of its inefficacy, even when given in larger doses than I thought the system could bear, I am now convinced that it is losing time to trust to it. In its place I would recommend the use of the powdered leaves of stramonium,* or their extract, in doses of two grains for an adult. By that quantity Dr. Cooper† found the pulse 'increased in frequency at first, and that it afterwards became full and quick, and produced giddiness, *warm skin*, moist hands, and *sleepiness*.' A defect of due energy in the heart, wakefulness, and cold skin, are symptoms that constantly attend the disease, and the two last are the sources of much distress. Hitherto no remedy has had the least effect in removing them. Their cure will greatly assist toward the removal of the whole complaint. This may be effected, in my opinion, by the *stramonium*, if given *early* in the disease. It should be exhibited in such doses as will *powerfully affect the system*, and repeated as often as a previous dose has ceased to act. During the suspension of the symptoms bark and wine ought to be given, and the dose gradually increased, so as to keep up a regular excitement, and produce a permanent vigour in the system. The quantity of wine may be unlimited. Indeed, the only rule that ought to be observed with respect to it, is, to *give it in as large quantities as the stomach will bear, and until it produces the desired effect*: for this disease exhibits a singular instance of the concentration of sensibility in certain parts of the body, and of a great defect of it, nay, almost a total exhaustion of it, in another. We see the same thing in tetanus and other diseases. Thus, while the eye cannot bear the sight of a looking-glass, or a vivid colour; nor

* Thorn-apple, or Jamestown weed.

† Inaug. Dissert. 1797.

the ear the shutting of a door ; nor the skin nor lungs the impression of the air—the stomach is so insensible to the impression of stimuli, that a bottle of wine will not produce as much effect on the pulse as a few glasses will in times of health. Dr. Currie, of Liverpool, cured a case of tetanus by 110 bottles of wine, and observes that ‘ebriety was not produced: it soothed the irritation of the nerves, and comforted the mind; and, without increasing the frequency of the pulse, it augmented it in strength.’*

“ In case, however, the above remedies cannot be obtained or exhibited, I should have no hesitation in trying another plan, which has several arguments to authorise the experiment, although, at first view, it may appear to be attended with danger. It is *to excite a strangury by means of cantharides*.

“ The principle of the animal economy first unfolded by J. Hunter, of one irritation curing another, is daily and amply confirmed in practice, and its application in the present disease seems highly probable. Without referring to the many instances afforded, in illustration, I may adduce one disease which is nearly allied to the present, viz, tetanus. When this is occasioned by the lesion of a nerve from a rusty nail, or other pointed instrument, we find it readily yields to an irritation of the wounded part, raised by scarification and the application of hot turpentine, marine salt, or cantharides; and in the progress of the disease, or when it succeeds the exposure of the body to dews and night air, after being heated in summer, an irritation of the salivary glands by mercury as readily proves effectual. A knowledge of these facts, and a conviction of the truth of the principle, would have been sufficient to prevent my hesitating to try the plan I propose; but I am now confirmed in my opinion of its utility and perfect safety, in consequence of the cure, by its use, of a desperate case of tetanus, by Dr. S. Brown, of Lexington, Kentucky, who lately communicated the history to Dr. Rush. The patient, a lady, was nearly exhausted by the disease, when her judicious physician gave her the tincture of cantharides, which,

* “ The defect of sensibility exhibited by persons labouring under some diseases of debility is really astonishing. A delicate young lady of Philadelphia, a few years since, was recovered from the lowest state of a typhus or low fever, by the use of 127 bottles of old Madeira, which was given to her, at her own request, when so weak that she could scarcely be heard to pronounce the single word ‘wine.’ From one table spoonful, she took, at last, two bottles a day. I have also seen children in the *cholera*, or summer complaint, bear almost incredible doses of stimulants.”

by exciting a temporary inflammation in the stomach and bowels, and producing a strangury, effected a cure. The most dangerous pleurisies have also been cured by the late Dr. Lieper, of Maryland, after the common remedies had failed, by exciting a strangury by means of the same tincture mixed with camphorated spirit of wine;* and when combined with tincture of Peruvian bark, and given with the same view, it has been recommended, by experience, in the whooping-cough.†

“The recommendation of the remedy in this disease, produced by the bite of a mad dog, is not new. Morgagni mentions its general use for the cure of the disease in Germany: his remark is confirmed by a late author.‡ A Silesian peasant also acquired much reputation for the cure of the disease; and on the purchase of his secret by the King of Prussia, in 1777, the basis was discovered to be the *meloë proscarabæus et majalis*§ (oil-beetle). All the insects of the *meloë* tribe possess a blistering quality. In a disease which has hitherto so generally proved superior to all the efforts of medicine, it is a duty to try every plan which promises the least success. The one I now urge is supported by a just theory, a close analogy, and, if we admit the German authority, I may add, is proved by experience. With respect to the safety of the measure, the bold practice of Dr. Brown leaves no doubt. But we every day see a strangury produced by blisters in fevers, which sometimes continues for three or four days, without any injury following. An irritation of the neck of the bladder, intentionally produced, and continued for that period, would be sufficient, in my opinion, for a cure. The general morbid irritability of the system being subdued, would be followed by a restoration of the powers of swallowing, when tonics might be easily administered, and certainly ought to be given in regular doses, so as to keep up the excitement. The association of ideas producing the horror of water being thus destroyed, the general or partial warm bath may be used to remove the strangury,|| if it should continue longer than neces-

* Rush's Works, vol. iv. p. 35.

† Lettsom's Mem. Lond. Dispensary.

‡ Diss. de Hyd. Auct. G. Uiberlacher, of Vienna.

§ See C. T. Schwartz de hyd. ejusque specifico *meloë majali*, et *proscarabæo*. Halæ, 1783. Tilloch's Phil. Mag. vol. vi.

|| “I have seen a strangury of four days continuance in the close of a fever, when the patient was so reduced that the necessary quantity of liquid could not be taken during the application of several blisters, yield to the application of warm water, poured from a bottle on the lower part of the belly, as the patient lay in bed.”

tary, and does not yield to the demulcent remedies commonly used with success. If a soreness in the bowels should be troublesome, a mucilaginous and oily diet should be prescribed."

It is but justice to Dr. M. to remark, that he manages this controversy with the utmost candour and urbanity. The respect due to the elevated rank which Professor Rush has long and deservedly held in the medical world, and the deference resulting from the relation which Dr. M. formerly bore as his pupil, are never once forgotten in the career of argument.

To such of our professional readers as may feel a peculiar interest in the discussion of this subject, it will not be amiss to observe, that, we are informed, a very important case of hydrophobia, reported by Dr. Physick, of Philadelphia, in which a new theory of the disease is proposed, will be published in the number of the *Medical Repository* for next August; and that Dr. Mease is preparing additional matter for publication on that subject, through the same channel.

ARTICLE XXI.

A Compend of Logic: for the Use of the University of Pennsylvania. By John Andrews, D. D. Vice-Provost of the University. 18mo. pp. 132. Philadelphia. Dobson. 1801.

AMONG the English treatises on logic, that of DUNCAN seems generally admitted to be the best, and we believe it is used in most of our colleges and schools. This *Compend* is principally abstracted from Duncan, and is made with judgment. As an elementary volume, it is well adapted to the use of young beginners in the art which teaches them to think and to reason; and how they may best discover and communicate truth.

ARTICLE XXII.

Proceedings of the General Society of the Cincinnati, with the Original Institution of the Order; to which is annexed, the Act of Incorporation, by the State of Pennsylvania; the Bye-Laws of the Pennsylvania Society, and

The Testimonial to the Memory of General Washington as adopted and communicated by the last Meeting of the General Society. Published by Direction of the Pennsylvania State Society. 8vo. pp. 82. Philadelphia. Ormrod. 1801.

THE title-page of this pamphlet sufficiently indicates its contents.—The interest and jealousy excited by the first institution of the American order have long since ceased; and the society, actuated by principles of benevolence, appear engaged only in the intercourse of friendship, and in acts of beneficence.

ARTICLE XXIII.

Remarks on the Organization and Constitutional Powers of the Council of Appointment of the State of New-York. By Justicius. Albany. Barber and Southwick:

THE object of this writer, whom we understand to be Mr. STEWART, of the Western country, appears to be to show that the Council of Appointment ought not to exercise their power in removing any one from office, not only without sufficient reason, but without first hearing him in his defence. He asserts that the words in the constitution declaring that all offices of which the duration is not ascertained, shall be construed to be held during the pleasure of the Council of Appointment, “are entirely technical, and import, that as the Council have the sole authority to *appoint*, so also they have the sole authority to *revoke*, but under the implied trust that justice will be done.” “Even the judges of hell are said to hear the party in his defence *after* they have secured his condemnation, *which is exalted justice compared with not hearing him at all.*” We do not, however, perceive the good sense of this remark.

Although it may be allowed that the writer takes the plausible side of the question, yet it can scarcely be doubted but that he is in the wrong, and it is certain the practice has always been against him.

Of his abilities as a writer this performance affords no favourable specimen. We give the following examples:

“There is a kind of indifference, akin to the hiding of the

ostrich, which men are prone to under all governments, but especially in those denominated free; which is, to overlook or turn aside the eye from the most glaring defects in the political machine, because they hope it will be administered by those whose talents and virtues will supply such defects, or from the base expectation that they shall escape being numbered with the victims. Some *fallacy, like one of these*, has, perhaps, prevented the people of the State of New-York from correcting, long since, two of the greatest absurdities that ever deformed a political institution—the construction of their *Council of Appointment*, and that of their *Court for the Correction of Errors*.”

“We know that the good people of this State have hitherto been obliged, owing either to the arts of certain demagogues, or the ignorance or supineness of their representatives, to vote for senators in four great districts. This, in itself, was an evil sufficient to prevent the electors from ever acquiring an adequate knowledge of the candidates obtruded on their choice, so as to be able to determine whether they were fit for *senators* or *sextons*.”

“At the end of a session of the Legislature, after the important business of creating new counties, too numerous before; *splitting some towns, and splicing others; tinkering up the road act,*” &c.

It is difficult to conceive any thing more offensive to just taste than such frigid, affected attempts at humour.

ARTICLE XXIV.

An Examination of the Opinion contained in the Report of the Onondaga Commissioners, of the 17th of February, 1800, to his Excellency the Governor; and by him transmitted to the Honourable the Legislature: with a view to its Refutation. By a Western Citizen. 8vo. pp. 24. Albany. Printed for the Author. 1800.

THE question which gave rise to this controversy, once so interesting, having been decided by the Legislature at their last session, there remains no necessity for examining the pamphlet before us in any other than a literary point of view. The obscure and affected style, full of ambiguity and quaintness, readily discovers it to be from the same pen which

produced the article last under review. That it may be seen we do not censure without sufficient reason, we present the reader with a few extracts from the pamphlet. The title-page itself affords a very good instance of the ambiguous. "An Examination of the Opinion," &c. "to his Excellency the Governor; and by him transmitted to the Honourable the Legislature: *with a view to its refutation.*" Here the *refutation* is left by the Governor to the Legislature, and the only difficulty would be to discover which of the two pamphlets, the *Examination* or the *Opinion*, was to occupy the debates of that honourable body. In the first paragraph we find, "And their list of lots thus circumstanced, with the names of the patentees, amount to no fewer than 412 of *each.*" Here the two last words are happily added, so as to render the whole sentence completely unintelligible. The following sentence needs no comment: "I will remark, that throughout this report solecisms so frequently occur in the language; facts assumed that are not proved; the reasoning, in general, so illogical, that one cannot be certain of its meaning, beyond its general propositions and insulated positions." Again: "The same rabble of terms and phrases which distinguish the conveyances under the feudal constitution are still to be found in the grants derived from this State, whether the evidence thereof is immediate by *patent* under the great seal, or mediate in the *deed* of the country attorney."—"Indulgence, however, is due to those who change with tardiness from the beaten track, unimpelled by interest or monition, in a subject of such novelty, when recent circumstances disclose that even a more exalted body than the commissioners of the land-office *are yet unmindful of its import.*"

As a mark of the writer's extreme acuteness of mental vision in discovering minute distinctions, we present the following: "It must now be evident that the report states a false construction of this material part of the act. *Whether this was done ex ignorantia, or ignoranter, let others determine.*"

"Strange that such difference there should be
"Twixt *tweedle-dum* and *tweedle-dee.*"

These faults, however, are venial, compared with another which pervades this fantastic performance; we mean the indulgence the writer allows himself in that free and almost indiscriminate use of coarse epithets, so utterly inconsistent with the decorum that characterises the candid and well-bred man.

ARTICLE XXV.

The Child's Library, Part I. and II. By William Biglow, Salem. Cushing.

AS nothing relating to the education of our youth or our children can be indifferent to us, we have attentively examined this little *compilation*; and it gives us pleasure to be able to speak of it in favourable terms, and to recommend it to the use of schools as a good substitute for the *Primmer*.

ARTICLE XXVI.

The Pedagogiad, or Literary Fracas; a Lyric Tale, by Peregrine Pastime. pp. 15.

WHAT criticism can be profitably bestowed on a production which, though in the dignified garb of poetry, is yet unable to proceed two lines without a violation of one of the most obvious rules of syntax?

If any thing can equal the dullness of this pamphlet, it is its obscurity.

 Review of Foreign Works republished.

ARTICLE I.

Practical Education: by Maria Edgeworth, Author of Letters for Literary Ladies, and the Parent's Assistant; and by Richard Lovell Edgeworth, F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. In two vols. 8vo. First American Edition. pp. 340 each. New-York. G. F. Hopkins, and Brown and Stansbury. 1801.

THE work here presented to the public is printed from the London edition in quarto. We have frequently expressed our satisfaction at seeing valuable and expensive British productions republished in a form more convenient and economical.—The

American editors of this edition of the "Practical Education," have not only been attentive to convenience and economy, but have conferred additional elegance on the pages of these volumes; and they deserve much commendation for the spirit and judgment which they have displayed in the execution of the work. We are pleased to observe, from the list of subscribers, that their patronage has been extensive and respectable; and we feel a satisfaction in saying that the work, for its intrinsic value, merits liberal encouragement.

During the present age several ingenious systems of education have appeared, and many excellent books have been written for the use of children, which evince an enlightened and growing attention to a subject of very deep and universal concern. Many valuable principles, and many useful hints, are, no doubt, to be found in those systems; but it cannot be denied that they abound with errors, where errors are most dangerous and fatal. Ardent and benevolent minds are very liable to be misled in their speculations on a subject in which, perhaps, speculation and refinement ought most to be avoided. — Though the acquisition of knowledge has been greatly facilitated, yet that system of education which comprehends the moral and physical character of man from his birth to maturity, is still so imperfect, that, it is probable, ages will pass away before any thing completely satisfactory can be attained. Even then it must change with the ever-varying condition of human society and government.

It is an important truth, inculcated by the authors of this performance, that the art of education, like other arts, must be learned from experience. The lessons of honest and enlightened persons, who have been long engaged in the business of instruction, and who have no favourite systems to uphold, are of more value than all the theories, however ingeniously formed, of one who has never reared a child from infancy to manhood. We were, therefore, pleased to meet with a work with the present title, the production of persons for many years employed in domestic education of children, and who have "no peculiar system to support, but rely entirely on practice and experience."

This work is the joint production of the persons mentioned in the title-page, and of Mr. Lovell Edgeworth; the greater part appears to have been written by Miss Edgeworth, who has sometimes made use of the notes of their mother, Mrs. Honora Edgeworth, who had devoted herself, with uncommon assiduity, to the education of a numerous family.

The subject is distributed into twenty-four chapters, which treat successively on the following topics: *Toys—tasks—attention—servants—acquaintance—temper—obedience—truth—rewards and punishments—sympathy and sensibility—vanity, pride and ambition—books—grammar and classical literature—geography and chronology—arithmetic—geometry—mechanics—chemistry—public and private education—female accomplishments, &c.—memory and invention—taste and imagination—wit and judgment—prudence and economy.* The twenty-fifth chapter contains a summary of the work; and an *appendix* is subjoined, containing *conversations and anecdotes of children.*

The reader will perceive that several important points of instruction are wanting in the above table of contents.—The motives which induced the authors to omit them are thus mentioned in their preface:

“On religion and politics we have been silent, because we have no ambition to gain partizans, or to make proselytes, and because we do not address ourselves exclusively to any sect or any party. The scrutinizing eye of criticism, in looking over our table of contents, will also, probably, observe that there are no chapters on courage and chastity. To pretend to teach courage to Britons, would be as ridiculous as it is unnecessary; and, except amongst those who are exposed to the contagion of foreign manners, we may boast of the superior delicacy of our fair countrymen; a delicacy acquired from domestic example, and confirmed by public approbation. Our opinions concerning the female character and understanding, have been fully detailed in a former publication;* and, unwilling to fatigue by repetition, we have touched but slightly upon these subjects in our chapters on Temper, Female Accomplishments, Prudence and Economy.”

Some readers will be disposed to think that the reasons here assigned are insufficient; and, without doubt, the plan of education would have been far more complete had religion and politics been included. But books of instruction on those subjects are numerous, and the sources of information are so various and multiplied, that the omission is the less to be regretted; and it appears to have been the wish of the writers to avoid, as much as possible, needless repetition. Besides, this work is not intended for the use of children themselves, but for the instruction and guide of those to whose care the education of

* Letters for Literary Ladies.

them is intrusted, and who, it is to be presumed, are already imbued with sound principles of religion, and just notions of political government, though they may be ignorant of many other branches of education.

It is with parents and preceptors that every improvement must begin, and on them must every experiment depend for its success; for, until example accords with precept, the whole business of instruction must be distracted, feeble and imperfect. The best general rules, how often soever they may be inculcated, are to children "a dead letter," unless verified by experience and illustrated by example. To parents and preceptors, therefore, we may safely recommend the perusal of these volumes; and if any errors should be found, (for what human system is free from error?) they may be perceived and avoided by them, without injury to the pupil.

The various anecdotes and facts concerning children, interspersed throughout the work, enliven the subject; and we believe many will be inclined to think that the detail of such moral experiments in the developement and formation of the human character, are of no less moment than those numerous experiments in physicks which engross the attention of the votaries of science. This manner of preserving the history of childhood is deserving of attention, and may constitute the means of attaining a just plan for the management of young persons.

Some parts are not discussed in so full a manner as might be wished; and it is to be feared that some things will be found impracticable, except by those who are in the possession of opulence and leisure. But, on the whole, whether we consider the variety of matter, the minuteness of the details, the sound maxims and just reasoning contained in this work, the acuteness of observation, good sense, and perspicuity of style displayed by the writers, we cannot but consider it as the most valuable which has yet appeared on the subject of education.

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(To be continued.)

ARTICLE II.

Elements of Chemistry. By M. I. A. Chaptal. Translated from the French. Second Edition. Three vols. in one. 8vo. pp. 673. Philadelphia. Conrad and Co. 1801.

THE character of Professor CHAPTAL'S *Elements* is already so well established as one of the best books for introducing students to a knowledge of Chemistry, that any commendatory remarks from us would be needless. It is methodical—leading the inquirer along, step by step, and from object to object, so as to please and instruct him in his progress.

The application of the principles of chemistry to the useful and fine arts, to medicine, agriculture, manufactures, domestic economy, and to the numberless purposes of human convenience, render it a most valuable compendium of science.

The first American edition of this work was printed in 1796, from the version of Mr. *Nicholson*, published some years ago in London. By compressing the matter of the three London volumes into one, though in a large and fair type, the price of the work has been greatly diminished to the American purchasers; a circumstance of no trivial importance to those among us who have a taste for reading, and have not the means of indulging in so costly a luxury, as the books which now issue from the English presses have become. There is no doubt that the moderate price at which the "*Elements of Chemistry*" have been offered to American readers, has, in no small degree, contributed to produce a taste for that comprehensive science. And we are pleased at the sight of this *second* impression of the work, because, while it induces us to suppose that the publishers have been rewarded for their labours, it evinces the prevalence of scientific curiosity, and that chemical studies are becoming more fashionable among us.

This edition is printed literally from the former. It is to be regretted that the editor did not avail himself of the latest discoveries and facts to enhance its value, as he might have done by giving an account of recent discoveries, of alterations in the nomenclature, improvements in the arrangement,

and the opening of new views on certain subjects since the original was published.

Should there be a *third* edition of this work, we hope these hints may receive some attention.

ARTICLE III.

The Works of Robert Burns; with an Account of his Life, and a Criticism on his Writings: to which are prefixed, some Observations on the Character and Condition of the Scottish Peasantry. In four vols. 12mo. about 400 pp. each. Philadelphia. Dobson. 1801.

THIS American edition of the works of the celebrated Scottish poet, possesses all that neatness and accuracy for which the works published by Mr. DOBSON have long been distinguished; and he could not have collected from the mass of British publications, a work more deserving his attention, or better calculated to gratify liberal curiosity, and to afford amusement and instruction to his countrymen.

The editor is Dr. CURRIE, of *Liverpool*, a gentleman eminently distinguished for his literary and professional talents, and for an enlightened and active benevolence of character. He has enriched this edition, which is intended to rescue the widow and children of the deceased poet from poverty, by a most instructive and elegant piece of biography and criticism; and we have rarely seen the office of editor and biographer discharged with more ability and candour.

The *prefatory remarks*, concerning the character and conduct of the Scottish peasantry, which, in some respects, may be applied to the people of *New-England*, will be interesting to the American reader, and throw light on those circumstances which contributed to form the early character of *Burns*.

"A slight acquaintance with the peasantry of Scotland," says Dr. Currie, "will serve to convince an unprejudiced observer, that they possess a degree of intelligence not generally found among the same class of men in other countries of Europe. In the very humblest condition of the Scottish peasants, every one can read, and most persons are more or less skilled in writing and arithmetic; and under the disguise of their uncouth appearance, and of their peculiar manners and dialect, a stranger will discover that they possess a curiosity, and have

obtained a degree of information corresponding to these acquirements."

"These advantages they owe to the legal provision made by the parliament of Scotland, in 1646, for the establishment of a school in every parish throughout the kingdom, for the express purpose of educating the poor; a law which may challenge comparison with any act of legislation to be found in the records of history, whether we consider the wisdom of the ends in view, the simplicity of the means employed, or the provisions made to render these means effectual to their purpose.

It is with pleasure and pride that we can cite the laws of a considerable portion of our country, which may vie with those of Scotland, so justly applauded by Dr. CURRIE.* But we cannot, at the same time, but express our surprise and regret, that the legal provisions made in New-England, for the education of children, and the establishment of parish schools, so universally approved and admired, have never been adopted with any effect in the other states of America.

It would be curious and instructive to trace the comparison between the inhabitants of New-England and Great-Britain in these particulars; but this we must leave to our readers. There is one very striking feature in the character of the Scots, which will attract the notice of the attentive observer of human society, and the manners of nations; we mean, their love of music and of song. The remarks of Dr. C. on this subject, are so happily expressed, that we cannot forbear to present them to our readers.

"The impression which the Scottish music has made on the people, is deepened by its union with the national songs, of which various collections of unequal merit are before the public. These songs, like those of other nations, are many of them humorous, but they chiefly treat of love, war, and drinking. Love is the subject of the greater proportion. Without displaying the higher powers of the imagination, they exhibit a perfect knowledge of the human heart, and breathe a spirit of affection, and sometimes of delicate and romantic tenderness, not to be surpassed in modern poetry, and which the more polished strains of antiquity have seldom possessed.

"The origin of this amatory character in the rustic muse of Scotland, or of the greater number of these love-songs them-

* See Swift's *System of the Laws of Connecticut*, vol. i. and *ante*, p. 229. *Dwight's Centennial Sermon*.

selves, it would be difficult to trace; they have accumulated in the silent lapse of time, and it is now perhaps impossible to give an arrangement of them in the order of their date, valuable as such a record of taste and manners would be. Their present influence on the character of the nation is, however, great and striking. To them we must attribute, in a great measure, the romantic passion which so often characterizes the attachments of the humblest of the people of Scotland, to a degree, that, if we mistake not, is seldom found in the same rank of society in other countries. The pictures of love and happiness exhibited in their rural songs, are early impressed on the mind of the peasant, and are rendered more attractive from the music with which they are united. They associate themselves with his own youthful emotions; they elevate the object as well as the nature of his attachment; and give to the impressions of sense, the beautiful colours of imagination. Hence, in the course of his passion, a Scottish peasant often exerts a spirit of adventure, of which a Spanish Cavalier need not be ashamed. After the labours of the day are over, he sets out for the habitation of his mistress, perhaps at many miles distance, regardless of the length, or the dreariness of the way. He approaches her in secrecy, under the disguise of night. A signal at the door or window, perhaps agreed on, and understood by none but her, gives information of his arrival, and sometimes it is repeated again and again, before the capricious fair one will obey the summons. But if she favours his addresses, she escapes unobserved, and receives the vows of her lover under the gloom of twilight, or the deeper shade of night. Interviews of this kind are the subjects of many of the Scottish songs, some of the most beautiful of which Burns has imitated or improved. In the art which they celebrate, he was perfectly skilled; he knew, and had practised all its mysteries. Intercourse of this sort is indeed universal, even in the humblest condition of every man in every region of the earth. But it is not unnatural to suppose, that it may exist in a greater degree, and in a more romantic form, among the peasantry of a country who are supposed to be more than commonly instructed, who find in their rural songs expression for their youthful emotions, and in whom the embers of passion are continually fanned by the breathings of a music full of tenderness and sensibility. The direct influence of physical causes on the attachment between the sexes, is comparatively small, but it is modified by moral causes beyond any other affection of the

mind. Of these, music and poetry are the chief. Among the snows of Lapland, and under the burning sun of Angola, the savage is seen hastening to his mistress, and every where he beguiles the weariness of his journey with poetry and song.

"In appreciating the happiness and virtue of a community, there is, perhaps, no single criterion on which so much dependence may be placed as the state of the intercourse between the sexes. Where this displays ardour of attachment, accompanied by purity of conduct, the character and the influence of women rise in society, our imperfect nature mounts in the scale of moral excellence, and from the source of this single affection a stream of felicity descends, which branches into a thousand rivulets that enrich and adorn the field of life. Where the attachment between the sexes sinks into an appetite, the heritage of our species is comparatively poor, and man approaches the condition of *the brutes that perish*."

The remainder of the first volume is occupied with the "Life of Burns," a poem on his death, by Mr. Roscoe, author of the life of *Lorenzo de Medici*; and some notes. Part of this narrative is in the poet's own words, taken from the letter addressed by him to Dr. MOORE, author of *Views of Society and Manners on the Continent of Europe*, Zeluco, &c. Mr. MURDOCH also, who was the preceptor of BURNS, and Mrs. DUNLOP, the generous and affectionate friend of the Scottish bard, as well as others, have contributed many interesting facts. We regret that the plan of our review, which obliges us to bestow our principal attention on domestic productions, will not permit us to extract these portions, as well as the judicious and well-written character of the poet and his works, given by his editor.

The second volume contains the correspondence between Mr. Burns and his friends, and will be found more pleasing and instructive than the publications of the letters of authors and their friends usually are.

The third volume comprises the *Poems*, and a *Glossary*. The principal poems of the *Ayreshire bard*, on which his reputation for genius will permanently rest, have been so long familiar to the readers and admirers of British poetry, that any praise or criticism from us would be superfluous, and the more so, since so much justice has been done to their merits by the learned and judicious editor.

When so much affectation, false refinement, and, we may say, false simplicity, is observable in the poetry of the present

day, persons possessed of sound taste, lovers of genuine tenderness and simplicity, of sprightly humour and true sublimity, will be pleased to find so pure, varied, and delightful a repast as this volume presents for their gratification.

"The force of *Burns*," says Dr. C. "lay in the powers of his understanding, and in the sensibility of his heart; and these will be found to infuse the living principle into all the works of genius which seem destined for immortality. His sensibility had an uncommon range. He was alive to every species of emotion. He is one of the few poets that can be mentioned, who have at once excelled in humour, in tenderness, and in sublimity; a praise unknown to the ancients, and which, in modern times, is only due to Ariosto, to Shakespeare, and, perhaps, to Voltaire. To compare the writings of the Scottish peasant with the works of these Giants of Literature might appear presumptuous; yet it may be asserted that he has displayed *the foot of Hercules*."

The greater part of the fourth volume consists of letters which passed between Mr. BURNS and Mr. THOMSON, editor of *A Select Collection of Original Scottish Airs for the Voice, &c. with Select and Characteristic Verses by the most admired Scottish Poets, &c.* relative to that work. These letters contain many songs by Mr. B. and his opinions on songs, song writing, and other literary topics. To these are added poems, songs, and other smaller pieces of poetry, with a *glossary*.

We shall conclude our brief account of these volumes, by wishing that our readers may feel as much satisfaction in their perusal, and derive as much and as various pleasure and instruction from them, as we have done.

LITERARY JOURNAL.

INTELLIGENCE.

HETEROGENEOUS FORMATION OF GARNET CRYSTALS.

MR. SMITH has stated, in *Med. Rep.* vol. iii. p. 255, that *granites* are frequently crystallized in America; and that he has repeatedly seen *amorphous* particles of quartz, mica, feldspath and hornblende, compacted into regular crystals. And he is of opinion, that such heterogeneous masses,

incapable of regular division and subdivision, are wholly repugnant to the Abbe HAUY's theory of crystallization. To these facts it is in our power to add, that something of a similar structure obtains in the *garnets* abounding in the great granitical strata in the neighbourhood of New-York. Some of these garnets, in Dr. Mitchill's possession, are as large as musket-balls, and are elegantly crystallized into six-sided columns, terminating in three-sided pyramids at each end, or shaped into regular dodecahedrons. These are their common forms. But the mass so figured is not made up of the brown, reddish, or purple colour of the *garnet only*; for in a large proportion of them there are interspersed considerable flakes or plates of mica, not chemically blended, but existing in its proper character. This heterogeneous aggregate of *garnet* and *mica* constitutes beautiful crystalline figures. The plates of mica in them are sometimes parallel to the sides of the crystals; sometimes perpendicular to it, and presenting their edges; and, at others, wedged in at different angles of obliquity. In these cases the crystal is incapable of dissection, or mechanical separation into smaller figured pieces, and would, therefore, seem to present another example of natural configuration not explicable upon Haüy's principles.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

The Presidency of Columbia College was left vacant, about ten months ago, by the resignation of William Samuel Johnson, LL. D. Since that time the business of the institution has been conducted by the Professors of Natural Philosophy, of Chemistry, and of Classical Literature; and it appears, from the report of the Regents of the University to the Legislature, that the number of students has considerably increased during the last year. Dr. Johnson had officiated as President ever since the re-establishment of the college, after the disasters of the revolutionary war; and, during part of that time, held the seat of a Senator to Congress from the State of Connecticut. He is the son of the Rev. Samuel Johnson, S. T. D. who was its first President, when known by the name of *King's College*. At a late meeting of the Corporation of the College, a choice of a successor was made, and the Rev. Dr. Wharton, of Burlington, unanimously elected. It is expected Dr. Wharton will shortly be inducted, and contribute his active services and learned labours to the further advancement of one of the most respectable colleges in America.

New Patents, Inventions and Discoveries.

PATENTS GRANTED BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1800.

THE following list contains a very general account of patents. It was expected that a particular description of each invention and improvement could have been obtained; but this must be deferred to our subsequent numbers. In the mean time it would be beneficial to the public, and subservient to mechanical philosophy, if the patentees would transmit, to the publishers of the American Review and Literary Journal, copies of their several *specifications* of their inventions or improvements, or other exact descriptions of them.

Oliver Evans, of Pennsylvania, for an *improvement on stoves and grates*. Stephen Gorham, of Massachusetts, for an *improvement in a machine for spinning rope-yarns and twine of all kinds*. Silas Constant, of New-York, for a *composition or cement for the purpose of preserving wood and brick from decay, and for stopping leaks and fissures in any body to which it shall be applied*. Benjamin Bolitho, of Pennsylvania, for a *pounding machine, for the purpose of cleaning rice, manufacturing gun-powder, &c.* John J. Hawkins, of Pennsylvania, for an *improvement in pianno fortes, harpsichords, &c.* Hattil Killey, of Massachusetts, for a *new method of covering salt vats from the weather*. Nathaniel Ladd, of New-Hampshire, for a *new method of extracting the essence from sumach, fern, &c. for the purpose of tanning hides and skins*. Patrick Lyon, of Pennsylvania, for an *improvement in the construction of an engine for the purpose of throwing water*. Benjamin Tyler, of New-Hampshire, for an *improvement in the construction of grist-mills*. John Percy, of Connecticut, for a *new mode of dying a blue colour*. William Harris, of Massachusetts, for a *new lathe or loom for weaving*. Comfort Hoyt, jun. of Connecticut, for a *machine for manufacturing sumach*. William Hottenstien, of Pennsylvania, for an *improvement on coach collars*. Peter Walker, of New-York, for an *improvement called a stop cock*. Dean Howard, of Massachusetts, for an *improvement in the manufacture of boots and shoes*. Silas Stone, of Massachusetts, for an im-

provement in the elastic truss for ruptures. John Biddis, of Pennsylvania, for an engine for the purpose of reducing silk, cotton, worsted, and open dressed woollen cloths and ropes to their original state, so as to be fitted for the purpose of manufacturing, &c. Simeon Jocelin, of Connecticut, for an improvement called a silent moving time-keeper. Jeremiah Brown, of Rhode-Island, for an improvement in the construction of ships or vessels. George Hadfield, a resident in the United States two years, for a machine for making bricks and tiles. Edward West, of Kentucky, for a discovery of a composition of metals, in the shape of rings, for persons to wear who are afflicted with the rheumatism, rheumatic pains, or the cramp. Thomas O'Harrison, of New-Jersey, for a machine for splitting hides and skins. Robert Smith, of Pennsylvania, for a new mould-board for a plough. Peter Lorillard, of New-York, for a new machine for cutting tobacco. James Deneale, jun. of Virginia, for a new kiln for the purpose of drying grain. Peter Lossing, of New-York, for an improvement in the mode of burning limestone, or reducing limestone or other substances into lime by calcination. Frederick Butler, of Connecticut, for the invention of a machine for cooking. Frederick Young, of New-York, for a machine for cutting and heading nails at one operation. Ezra Weld, of Massachusetts, for a machine for washing and wringing clothes. Jonathan Kilborn, of Connecticut, for a machine for cutting tanners' bark, sumach, &c. David Cooley, jun. and Gabriel N. Philips, of New-York, for an improvement in chimnies. Richard Mansfield, of Connecticut, for an improvement in the mode of manufacturing bricks, &c. Aaron Brookfield, of New-Jersey, for a machine for raising water, by the operation of the tide or any other current, for the purpose of turning mills. John J. Hawkins, of Pennsylvania, for an improvement in musical instruments and musical notation, with an apparatus for writing and engraving them quickly, &c. and also in the application of some of the same principles to saddles, riding carriages, &c. Jonathan Grout, jun. of Massachusetts, for an improvement in the art of conveying, by sight, any intelligence on any subject. Samuel Morey, of New-Hampshire, for obtaining a force or power from water with the assistance of steam.

New Publications, and Works preparing for the Press.

A FOURTH volume of Dr. WITHERSPOON'S Works has lately appeared, from the press of Mr. WOODWARD, of Philadelphia. This volume is chiefly made up of pieces never before published, and completes the plan of Mr. WOODWARD. Some account of this important publication may be expected in a future number of the Review.

A work on the *Evidences of Christianity*, with a particular view to a refutation of the reasonings and opinions of THOMAS PAINE has lately been published by Mr. DICKINS, in Philadelphia. The author is ELIAS BOUDINOT, LL. D. Director of the Mint of the United States. A work from so respectable a hand, and on such a subject, will naturally excite expectation. We shall, therefore, take the earliest opportunity of laying before our readers some farther account of it.

Two more *Century Sermons* have appeared; one by Dr. DANA, of New-Haven; and the other by Dr. LATHROP, of West-Springfield.

Mr. ASBURY DICKINS, of Philadelphia, has lately published *Edwy and Elgiva*, a tragedy in five acts, by CHARLES JARED INGERSOLL—

Letters of Sulpicius on the Northern Confederacy—

Murray's Exercises, adapted to his Grammar—and

A new novel, by the author of *Weiland*, Ormond, Arthur Mervyn, &c. entitled *Clara Howard*, in a series of letters; elegantly printed in one vol. 12mo.

A *Sermon*, by the Rev. JOHN M. MASON, A. M. Pastor of the Associate-Reformed Church in the City of New-York, entitled, *Pardon of Sin in the Blood of Jesus*, has just issued from the press of T. and J. SWORDS.

An Abridgement of the Laws of Pennsylvania, arranged under their proper heads, and placed in alphabetical order; with an appendix of precedents, and a complete index to the whole, by COLLINSON READ, has lately been published by HALL and SELLERS, of Philadelphia.

An improved edition of the *Rural Socrates*, or the History

of Kliyogg, the Swiss Farmer, has been printed at Hallowell, in the District of Maine. It contains several new articles, and is said to have been edited by BENJAMIN VAUGHAN, Esq. Some copies have arrived at New-York, and may be had of T. and J. SWORDS.

Mr. WILLIAM LIVINGSTON, of Long-Island, has issued proposals for publishing, by subscription, *Memoirs; or Biographical Sketches of William Livingston, Esq.* late Governor of New-Jersey, with a collection of his fugitive pieces in verse and prose. The work will be comprised in three vols. 8vo. of about 450 pages each; and be put to press by ISAAC COLLINS as soon as 1500 subscribers are obtained.

J. W. FENNO, of New-York, has republished *Louisa*: a narrative of facts, supposed to throw light on the mysterious history of the lady of the hay-stack. Translated by the Rev. G. H. GLASSE.

He also will publish, in a few days, *The Life, Adventures and Opinions of Col. John Hanger*.

BENJAMIN S. BARTON, M. D. Professor of Materia Medica, Natural History, and Botany, in the University of Pennsylvania, has issued proposals for printing by subscription *Elements of Botany*. To be comprised in one royal 8vo. volume, and illustrated by a number of plates.

Messrs. CHARLES R. and GEORGE WEBSTER, of Albany, intend shortly putting to press, *The Transactions of the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures, instituted in the State of New-York*.

Mr. JAMES HUMPHREYS, of Philadelphia, will soon publish *The Oriental Navigator, or new Directions for Sailing to and from the East-Indies*.

MATHEW CAREY, bookseller, of Philadelphia, has addressed a circular letter to the printers and booksellers of the United States, stating the evils which result from the appearance of several editions of the same work in different places, from the mutual ignorance of the intentions of each other; and requesting that each printer and bookseller would give public notice of what books he intends to reprint or publish. At the same time he informs the public that he designs to publish *Charlotte Temple*, *Goldsmith's History of Greece*, *Conductor Generalis*, *Columbian Spelling Book*, fourth edit. *Child's Guide*, second edit. *Priestley's Biographical Chart*, continued by himself to the close of the eighteenth century—*A Traveller's Pocket Companion from Baltimore to New-York*.

Medical Publications.

*See
List*

The following Medical Publications may be had at the Book Store of T. & J. Swords, No. 99 Pearl-Street, New-York.

JUSTIN on the Stone,
 Baillie's Morbid Anatomy,
 Brown's Materia Medica,
 Brown's Memoir on the Gout,
 Brown's Essay on the Yellow Fever,
 Brown's Contributions,
 Brown on Consumption,
 Brown on the Hydrocele,
 Brown's Anatomy,
 Brown's Surgery,
 Brown's Venereal,
 Brown's Graphia Medica,
 Brown on the Diseases of Seamen,
 Brown's Physiology,
 Brown's Elements,
 Brown's Observations on the Zoonomia,
 Brown's Domestic Medicine,
 Brown's Anatomy of the Gravid Uterus,
 Brown's Anatomy,
 Brown on the Diseases of long Voyages,
 Brown on the Diseases of Minorca,
 Brown's Institutes,
 Brown's Practice,
 Brown's Zoonomia,
 Brown's Annals of Medicine, 1798 and 1799,
 Brown's Medical Commentaries,
 Brown's Dispensatory,
 Brown's Medical Pocket-Book,
 Brown's Medical Philosophy,
 Brown on the Gout,
 Brown's Surgery,
 Brown's Cases,
 Brown's Midwifery,
 Brown's Regimental Surgeon,
 Brown's Clinical Cases,
 Brown's Medical Dictionary,

Hosack's Introductory Lectures,
 Howard on the Venereal,
 Hunter on the Blood,
 Hunter on the Gravid Uterus,
 Jackson on Fever,
 Lewis' Dispensatory,
 Lewis' Materia Medica,
 London Practice of Physic,
 Medical and Physical Journal,
 Medical Repository,
 Medical Transactions,
 Memoirs of the London Medical Society,
 Moore's Medical Sketches,
 Nisbet's Clinical Guide,
 Ontyd on Diseases,
 Osborne's Midwifery,
 Pole's Instructor,
 Quincey's Lexicon,
 Rush's Inquiries,
 Rush's Lectures on Animal Life,
 Rush's Observations on the Yellow Fever,
 Rush's Second Address to the Citizens of Philadelphia,
 Saunders on the Liver,
 Seaman's Midwife's Monitor,
 Swedeaur on the Venereal,
 System of Anatomy,
 Temple's Practice,
 Tissot on the Small Pox,
 Trotter on the Diseases of Seamen,
 Underwood on the Diseases of Children,
 Walker's Memoirs of Medicine,
 Webster on Yellow Fever,
 White's Surgery,
 Willich's Lectures on Diet and Regimen,
 Yates and Maclean's Science of Life.

Likewise, among a variety of others, the following Works on Botany, Chemistry, Electricity, Natural Philosophy, &c.

Adams on Electricity,
 Bonnycastle's Astronomy,
 Bonnycastle's Geometry,
 Bonnycastle's Algebra,

Bonnycastle's Mensuration,
 Bonnycastle's Arithmetic,
 Cavallo on Electricity,
 Chaptal's Chemistry,

